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ABSTRACT

This guide contains an introduction to and the materials for use in the Local Office Decision-Making and Implementation (LODI) Workshop, a self-managed small group workshop designed to teach planning and management techniques for identifying and resolving priority needs of an agency's program. (A "need" is defined as the difference between what is desired and what is.) The Introduction is designed to acquaint the reader with the nature and purpose of LODI Workshop, to aid him in making a decision about conducting the Workshop in his agency, and to assist him in making plans for its implementation. The introduction also lists techniques and procedures taught by the Workshop (the working agreement, determining office needs, turning needs into goals, developing alternative plans, relative advantage, implementing the best alternative, evaluating results, and reassessment) and outlines the teaching design (eight to twelve staff agreeing to complete the nine chapters of the LODI materials in approximately 20 to 30 hours--five once-a-week 3- to 4-hour meetings). It is noted that the Workshop is designed to train staff members inexpensively without taking them away from their work places. Most of the guide consists of the workshop materials: (1) The LODI Participant's Workbook containing worksheets and other information needed for practice exercises and brief summaries of the convenor's script for review purposes, (2) The LODI Convenor's Manual containing scripts and display pages for each chapter, and (3) five resource packets meant to supplement the convenor's script and to be used at the discretion of the participants. (JT)

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LOCAL OFFICE DECISION-MAKING AND IMPLEMENTATION

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PREFACE

The "Local Office Decision-Making and Implementation (LODI) Workshop is a product of Manpower Science Services' continuing efforts to apply social science knowledge to the ways in which manpower agencies give service to clients.

The techniques taught by these Workshop materials are based on careful and extensive reviews of relevant research. They were first tried out in one manpower agency using a handbook format; with the help of that staff the content was re-packaged into the current A-frame format, tried out in a second manpower agency, then revised and field tested in sixteen manpower agencies around the country, leading to the final revision of the materials.

The major objective underlying all these efforts to involve manpower agency workers in this project was to make sure that the materials are relevant and useful in meeting the practical needs and conditions of staff groups in the manpower system.

Throughout, we have tried to design the materials so that they can be used within local offices without requiring outside experts or other expensive resources.

Obviously, there are many in the manpower field who contributed to the creation of this set of materials and credit cannot be given to all. The actual research, designing and writing were done by the following of the Manpower Science Services, Inc. staff:

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The third field test was conducted in the following manpower agencies:

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Commerce and Manpower
Boston, Massachusetts

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*Also member of the faculty and staff of the University of Michigan.

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Costal Bend Work Experience Program
Corpus Christi, Texas

City of Tacoma
Manpower Advisory Council
Tacoma, Washington

Commonwealth of Massachusetts
Division of Employment Security
Boston, Massachusetts

and

Brocton, Massachusetts

Comprehensive Manpower Center
Bluffton, Indiana

County of Dutchess
Office of Manpower Programs
Poughkeepsie, New York

County of San Diego
Human Resources Agency
Manpower Division
San Diego, California

Greater Anchorage Area Borough
Anchorage, Alaska

The Hopi Tribe
Hopi Manpower Program
Oraibi, Arizona

Louisville and Jefferson County
Manpower Planning Office
Louisville, Kentucky

Nash-Edgecombe Economic Development, Inc.
Neighborhood Youth Corps
Rocky Mount, North Carolina

State of New Jersey
Department of Labor and Industry
Trenton, New Jersey

Tippecanoe County Manpower Dept.
Lafayette, Indiana

Tulsa Area Manpower Authority, Inc.
Tulsa, Oklahoma

Whitney M. Young, Jr. Residential
  Manpower Center
Simpsonville, Kentucky

Manpower Science Services is a non-profit corporation established in 1968 to make social science knowledge more useful in helping the unemployed and underemployed. The development work in creating the LODI Workshop materials was supported by the Office of Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, under Contract No. 92-26-72-33. Since contractors performing such work under government sponsorship are encouraged to express their own judgement freely, these materials do not necessarily represent the Department's official opinion or policy. Moreover, the contractors are solely responsible for the factual accuracy of all content in these materials.

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AN INTRODUCTION TO

LOCAL OFFICE DECISION-MAKING AND IMPLEMENTATION

This guide has been developed to serve as a ready reference for understanding the "Local Office Decision-making and Implementation" (LODI) Workshop, developed for the U.S. Department of Labor by Manpower Science Services, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

OBJECTIVES OF THIS GUIDE

1. To acquaint you with the nature and purpose of the LODI Workshop.

2. To help you make an informed decision about conducting the Workshop in your agency.

3. To assist you in making plans for its implementation should you decide to conduct the Workshop.

WHAT THE LODI WORKSHOP IS

LODI is a self-managed small group workshop designed to teach planning and management techniques for identifying and resolving priority needs of your program. (A "need" is defined as the difference between what is desired and what is.) The Workshop has been designed to train staff members inexpensively without taking them away from their work places.

THE TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES TAUGHT BY THE WORKSHOP

The Working Agreement - Procedures are outlined by which you and your group will work out an agreement concerning your group's purpose for participating in the Workshop, and the ground rules to be followed in conducting the Workshop.

Determining Office Needs - You will be taught to use Brainstorming, a technique for generating a number of novel ideas. The technique is then used to determine a list of important needs of the office which are not being met adequately. You and your group will then be taught to use the Delphi Technique a procedure in which your list of important needs is referred to the entire office staff to involve them in achieving consensus on the high priority needs of the office.

Turning Needs Into Goals - You will learn how to analyze and use the results of the Delphi Technique to select the need that will be the basis for your LODI project. From this point on, all Workshop sessions will be built around the successful completion of this project. Next, you will learn how to translate general statements of need into specific goals that can provide direction and measurable criteria for your project.

Developing Alternative Plans - You will be helped to create alternative plans for achieving the goals that you specified in the previous chapter.

Relative Advantage - You'll learn to identify and analyze tangible and intangible payoffs and costs in order to reach a decision on the best alternative plan from those you created.

Implementing the Best Alternative - You'll learn how to identify, plan for and control the resources needed to carry out this project, and other programs your organization might undertake. Included are: matching people to the tasks that must be performed; acquiring and coordinating necessary equipment, supplied and facilities; developing systematic planning procedures; and planning for the unexpected ("contingency planning").

Evaluating Results - You'll learn 3 procedures ("Comparing Objectives to Results", "Time Interval Comparison", and "Comparison (or Control) Group Method") for measuring the degree to which goals are achieved. You'll also learn how to use evaluations in making readjustments to more completely achieve program goals.

Reassessment - In the last Chapter, you'll learn how to reassess the entire project, and the techniques and procedures you have learned, in relation to future problem solving in your office.

NOTE

Although these topics are listed sequentially, you will find that each of the techniques and procedures can be used independent of the others, as well as within a sequence of problem-solving steps. To demonstrate this point, examples of such use are included at the end of each Workbook chapter.

SHOULD WE USE THIS WORKSHOP?

Everyone has his or her own ideas about what makes an organization effective. Many people think - and research suggests - that an effective organization is one that senses areas within its control where things aren't working as well as they could, or up to the agency's expectations, collects a pool of alternative ways to do something about these situations, chooses one plan for change from among the alternatives, implements the change, evaluates it and uses this evaluation to make any further changes needed. Effective organizations often have the following characteristics:

- channels of communication are open up and down the organizational hierarchy, so that people in all segments of the organization have frequent opportunities to interact and feel they are being listened to;

- supervisors give information and helpful advice, rather than trying only to control staff performance;

- the organization has concrete, realistic yet challenging goals, and achieves these goals much of the time;

- morale is high;

- there is little rivalry between units of the organization;

- problem solving with regard to organizational problems is carried out through staff - wide participation in staff meetings, task groups, etc.;

- the organization is able to adapt to changes in its environment and influence its environment because its staff are actively involved in contacts with other agencies, with professional associations, and in the community in general;

- individual staff are given a wide range of discretion in the way they manage their own particular work;

- the organization makes efficient use of its economic and human resources;

- the organization is innovative when responding to new or unexpected tasks.

The more that your organization possesses characteristics like these, the less likely you are to need the kind of training afforded by the LODI Workshop. If your organization has some of these characteristics, but there is room for improvements, LODI could help your organization become more effective.

If your organization has few or none of these characteristics, and does not wish to acquire them, then it would be best to not use the LODI Workshop. In addition, use of the Workshop is not recommended if the organization is unwilling or unable to invest sufficient time and personnel required by the Workshop (as described on page 7-10 of this introductory statement).

To assist you in making your decision, a project that was developed at one of the LODI field test sites is described on pages 104-107 of the LODI Workbook. The project was developed by participants in the LODI Workshop, using the techniques and procedures taught during the Workshop.

THE TEACHING DESIGN OF THE WORKSHOP

Formal leadership of each Workshop session is vested in the position of Convenor; the position should be rotated among Workshop participants. As indicated above, one characteristic of an effective organization is that it engages staff at several levels in joint problem solving. By circulating the role of Convenor, your organization acquires some of this characteristic. In addition you emphasize the idea that everyone has responsibility to contribute some leadership during joint problem-solving. Assigning the role of Convenor to one person may give tacit permission for everyone to sit back and "let George do it." Sharing the Convenor's role is intended to avoid that pitfall, by keeping people actively involved in the problem solving process. The Convenor conducts a session by following a script which continually involves participants in discussion and practice exercises. The Convenor sits facing the group with the script propped up in front of him or her; the script is held in place by a looseleaf, A-frame binder. As each script page is flipped, its reverse side faces the group as a display page. Using this process, a related set of systematic planning and management techniques and procedures are taught and used in a way that brings concerted staff effort to bear on the resolution of an actual program need, which becomes the group's LODI project. The emphasis of the Workshop is learning by doing.

THE WORKSHOP MATERIALS

The Workshop materials consist of:

1. A Convenor's Manual containing scripts and display pages.
2. An A-frame binder which is used to hold the script and display during the presentation.
3. A Workbook for each participant, containing worksheets and other information needed for practice exercises. In addition, brief summaries of the Convenor's script are included for review purposes.
4. Single copies of resource packets on the following topics: Interviews and Questionnaires, Method of Paired Comparisons, Nominal Group Technique, Random Assignment and Sampling, and Acquiring Needed Resources. These packets are meant to supplement the Convenor's script and are to be used at the discretion of the Workshop participants.

HOW THE WORKSHOP OPERATES

Eight to twelve staff agree to complete the nine chapters of the LODI materials. Total group meeting time required is approximately 20 to 30 hours. In addition, each member chooses one or two "homework" assignments that he or she will do on behalf of the group's project: these require a few hours of work outside of the group meetings. The recommended format involves meeting once a week for three to four hour sessions, over a period of five weeks. However, because of its self-managed nature, any time arrangements that are feasible for group meetings may be used. Often, Workshop participants find that a high priority immediate need has been felt by everyone but never articulated or worked on: when this type of need becomes the focus of the workshop project, it can often be resolved in a day or two. For example, one Workshop group identified a priority need for more office work space. Within a few days they had doubled their office space, leaving them without an active project for the rest of the Workshop. Accordingly, it is thought that the best learning results when a more complicated need is selected as the Workshop project, one that can be worked on congruently with the progress of the workshop.

THE WORKSHOP GROUP

LODI is designed to involve staff at all levels of the agency - administrators, secretaries, counselors, supervisors, etc. - working together to resolve priority needs of the program. It is recommended that the Workshop group not exceed twelve or be less than eight; if the total staff group is larger than twelve, participants should represent all significant levels of operation within the program. It is strongly recommended that all persons in the Workshop be volunteer participants, and that they volunteer only after reading this introduction.

TO GET THE WORKSHOP STARTED

1. Distribute copies of this introduction to staff and then arrange a staff meeting to discuss the Workshop and review the sample materials that accompany this statement.

2. If staff agree to organize a LODI Workshop, arrange to select participants. In addition, try to locate a comfortable meeting place that will allow some freedom from interruptions by telephones, clients, and so forth.

3. Designate one person to act as Convenor for the first Workshop chapter. This person should be given the A-frame binder and the chapter(s) to be covered in that session. All participants should study the following "Rules for Convenor", since each will have a turn serving as Convenor.

RULES FOR CONVENORS

1. Each Convenor must study and rehearse the chapter(s) s/he is to present at least one or two days prior to the Workshop session. Since the Convenor will be following a script, s/he should practice reading it aloud. The

Convenor should feel free to change words or phrases to fit his or her own style, providing this does not alter the meaning of the script.

In rehearsing the script, the Convenor should work for clarity and interest. S/he should not read too quickly or mispronounce words, and should try to vary intonation and emphasis. Enthusiasm or boredom are contagious: the Convenor's manner of presentation can strongly affect the Workshop group's response. The best way for a Convenor to sound interested about a subject is to select a subject that is interesting to him or her. Accordingly, this introduction has included a brief description of each chapter so that participants can be prepared to select the one they wish to convene, when this is discussed in the first LODI Workshop session.

2. Directions to the Convenor on ways to conduct the training are in *Italic Type* on the script pages and should not be read aloud. However, when preparing for a Workshop session, it is essential that the Convenor read both the script and these directions, particularly since these directions give the Convenor some leeway in conducting the session.

3. The Convenor is not expected to be an expert in the subject presented. For example, it's appropriate to say to the Workshop group something like, "I'm not too clear on this point myself. Can anyone help figure it out?" The Workshop materials purposely don't tell you exactly how to do everything; the idea is to stimulate the participants to use their own problem solving resources.

4. The Convenor should watch for non-verbal cues from Workshop group members that suggest they may not be completely clear or in agreement with the presentation. When members are observed flipping pages of their Workbooks, looking annoyed or whispering to each other, the Convenor should ask the members to share their confusions, concerns or disagreements with the rest of the Workshop group.

5. To obtain maximum benefit from the materials, pick a time when Workshop members are likely to be fresh and alert. This usually rules out Friday afternoon.

6. Each session should be conducted at a round conference table, or with conference tables formed into a square, so that participants face each other. The Convenor should sit facing the Workshop group so that participants are close enough to see the display page side of the A-frame binder, and the Convenor can easily follow the Convenor's script.

7. Since each group member will serve as Convenor, it might be good for members to share observations about the things that preceeding Convenors have done that seemed helpful or not helpful.

8. This Workshop is most effective when every participant takes a turn serving as Convenor. However, some people are uncomfortable in this role, and should not be forced to serve as Convenor. In some cases, such persons might be more comfortable sharing a session with someone else, as a Co-Convenor.

9. During the staff meeting in which it is decided to conduct a LODI workshop, the Convenor for the first chapter should be selected. All other details of the Workshop's operation will be determined by the LODI participants during the first session of the Workshop.

LODI
PARTICIPANT'S
WORKBOOK

CHAPTER
I

An Exercise in Problem Solving

Assume that we are in a spaceship that has just crash-landed on the lighted surface of the moon. We were scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship 200 miles away on the lighted side of the moon, but the rough landing has runed out ship and destroyed all of the equipment on board, except for the fifteen items listed on the next page. Our survival depends on reaching the mother ship, so we must choose the most critical items available for the 200 mile trip.

In the first column, rank the 15 items in terms of their importance for survival. Place number one (1) by the most important item, number two (2) by the second most important, and so on through number fifteen (15), the least important.

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO BY THE CONVENOR

Lost on the Moon

Worksheet

Item	My Individual Rankings	NASA's Rankings	Error Points	Group Rankings	NASA's Rankings	Group Error Rankings
Box of Matches						
Food Concentrate						
50 ft. of Nylon Rope						
Parachute Silk						
Solar-Powered Portable Heating Unit						
Two .45 Caliber Pistols						
1 Case Dehydrated Milk						
Two 100 pound Tanks of Oxygen						
Stellar Map of Moon's Constellation						
Self-Inflating Life Raft						
Magnetic Compass						
5 Gallons of Water						
Signal Flares						
First Aid Kit with Injection Needles						
Solar Powered FM Receiver/Transmitter						
Total Error Points						

1. Fill in the correct answers from NASA (see page 4) on page 2 of your Workbook, working in the column "NASA's Rankings."

2. Compute the error points. Error points are the difference between your individual rating and the NASA ratings, whether plus or minus.

Example:

Item	Individual	NASA		Error
A	1	14	=	13
B	5	4	=	1
C	10	5	=	5
D	7	9	=	2

4. Add all the error points in the column and place the total in the box marked "Total Error Points."

5. Repeat steps 1 thru 4 for the group ratings.

The best possible score for this exercise is "zero" or a perfect match with NASA's rankings.

WHAT DO THE RESULTS MEAN?

Average Individual Score: _______
(Add all the individual score totals and divide by the number of persons in the group)

Best Individual Score: _______

Group Score: _______

LOST ON THE MOON

Answer Page

Items	NASA's Reasoning	NASA's Ranks
Box of matches	No oxygen on moon to sustain flame; virtually worthless	15
Food concentrate	Efficient means of supplying energy requirements	4
Fifty feet of nylon rope	Useful in scaling cliffs, tying injured together	6
Parachute silk	Protection from sun's rays	8
Solar-powered portable heating unit	Not needed unless on dark side	13
Two .45 caliber pistols	Possible means of self-propulsion	11
One case of dehydrated Pet Milk	Bulkier duplication of food concentrate	12
Two 100 pound tanks of oxygen	Most pressing survival need	1
Stellar map (of the moon's constellation)	Primary means of navigation	3
Self-inflating life raft	CO^2 bottle in military raft may be used for propulsion	9
Magnetic compass	Magnetic field on moon is not polarized, worthless for navigation	14
5 gallons of water	Replacement for tremendous liquid loss on lighted side	2
Signal flares	Distress signal when mother ship is sighted	10
First-aid kit containing injection needles	Needles for vitamins, medicines, etc., will fit special aperture in NASA space suits	7
Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter	For communication with mother ship; but FM requires line-of-sight transmission and short ranges	5

LODI: An Outline

Chapter I - The Working Agreement

Procedures are outlined by which the group can work out an agreement concerning group expectations, and the ground rules to be followed in conducting the Workshop.

Chapter II - Determining Office Needs

You will be taught to use *Brainstorming* - a technique for generating a number of novel ideas. The technique is then used to determine important needs of the office which are not being met adequately. The group will then be taught to use the *Delphi Technique* - a procedure in which a list of important needs are referred to the entire office staff to involve them in achieving consensus on the high priority needs of the office.

Estimated combined time for Chapters I and II: 4 hours.

Chapter III - Turning Needs Into Goals

You will learn how to analyze the results of the *Delphi Technique*. Using this knowledge you will use the *Delphi* results to select the need that will be the basis for your LODI project. From this point on, all Workshop sessions will be built around the successful completion of this project. Next, you will learn how to translate general statements of need into specific goals that can provide direction and measurable criteria for the success of your project.

Chapter IV - Developing Alternative Plans

Using *Brainstorming* you will develop alternative plans for achieving the objectives specified in the previous chapter.

Estimated combined time for Chapters III and IV: 4 hours.

Chapter V - Cost Payoff Analysis

You'll learn to estimate tangible and intangible costs and payoffs in order to select the best alternative.

Estimated time for Chapter V: 2 hours.

Chapter VI - Implementing the Best Alternative

You'll learn how to identify, plan for and control the resources needed to carry out your project. Included are: selecting the right people for the right tasks; acquiring and coordinating necessary equipment, supplies and facilities; developing systematic planning procedures; and planning for the unexpected. An optional segment on training (2 hrs.) is included for projects that require training of staff.

Chapter VII - Evaluating Results

You'll learn techniques for measuring the degree to which project objectives have been achieved. You'll also learn how to use evaluations in making readjustments to more completely achieve your goals. In the last Chapter, you'll learn how to reassess the entire project, as well as the techniques you have learned, in relation to future problem solving in your office.

Estimated combined time for Chapters VI and VII: 5 hours.

Chapter VIII - Reassessment

A brief session on plans for reassessing the project process and using what's been learned in the Workshop to resolve other problems.

* *

When should we meet? ______________________________

How long should our meetings run? ______________________________

Where will we meet? ______________________________

Who will be the Convenor for:

Chapter 2: Determining Office Needs ______________________

Chapter 3: Needs to Goals ______________________

Chapter 4: Developing Alternatives ______________________

Chapter 5: Cost-Payoff Analysis ______________________

Chapter 6: Implementation ______________________

Chapter 7: Evaluation ______________________

Chapter 8: Reassessment ______________________

Outside Work

After Chapter 2, implementing the Delphi Technique (at least two people), ______________________________

After Chapter 5, determining the ratio of costs to payoffs of the project alternatives (at least two people), ______________________

(Turn the Page)

After Chapter 6, planning for implementation of the Workshop project (at least two people) ____________________

Absences

How shall we handle absences? ____________________

What other rules are needed? ____________________

Practical Uses of the Working Agreement

The procedure of negotiating a working agreement, or contract, has many uses in addition to the one described in LODI. For example:

- a counselor and an applicant worked out an agreement in which the counselor would gather information about available training programs and share this information with the applicant, who would then decide (with the counselor's help) whether to enter one of the training programs, or enter a local community college;
- an individual had been helped to find a job through the local CETA. After six months on the job, he received his first promotion, and, as a minority group member was asked to serve on the company's minority opportunities committee. Staff at the CETA program asked if he would be willing to speak to a new group of applicants, as a model of the program's success. His former counselor negotiated a contract with him about the time he could come, the kinds of information he might provide, and the plans for an informal question-and-answer session;

A job description provides the basis for contract negotiation with a new staff member: when your agency hires someone, a "hiring" letter to that person is, in effect, the agency's contract with him. If the agency has a personnel practice code, this is also considered part of the contract.

- a manpower program was considering the budget it wanted to propose in relation to its potential funding under revenue sharing. Previously, the Director had created the budget herself, seeing it as her unpleasant but necessary redsponsibility. The major difficulty she encountered was deciding which of the many programs that made up the agency should receive highest priority. At this time, the staff was going through a training program, called "Techniques of Group Leadership: which included a session on "contract negotiation" in relation to group work. The Director was a participant in the training, and suggested that the training group practice its contracting skills by helping her work out relative budget priorities for the proposed budget. The group's response was enthusiastic: not only was consensus reached on the budget proposed, but the people who helped in the decision-making process got an overview picture of the budget making process and saw that they had played a major role in establishing the agency's priorities for the coming year.

Summary Outline

THE WORKING AGREEMENT

Chapter I

1. A working agreement or contract includes explicit statements about the roles of group members, and operating procedures of the group.

2. Guidelines for effective discussion, when working on a contract include:

   a. avoid arguing for a position: listen to others.

   b. if a stalemate is reached, look for a compromise.

   c. don't agree in order to avoid conflict.

   d. avoid conflict reducing techniques: work instead for consensus.

   e. bring disagreements out in the open.

   f. be an active listener.

   g. restate what you hear others say to make sure you heard it correctly.

   h. summarize to make sure the group is clear on what's been said.

3. When working out a contract, focus on concrete issues such as time, place, target dates, etc., and write down decisions so that they can be reviewed by all group members.

4. Each Convenor should:

   a. take care of physical arrangements for the Workshop session.

   b. rehearse the Convenor's script ahead of time.

   c. continually work to involve members in the Workshop.

5. A wide range of staff should be involved in selecting the Workshop's project.

6. It's important to review decisions made in Workshop sessions before a session ends in order to correct misimpressions, and make sure that all necessary decisions have been made.

LODI
PARTICIPANT'S
WORKBOOK

CHAPTER
I-A

Techniques of Group Leadership and Group Membership*

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Information Seeking 16
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Rewarding 20
Responding to Feeling 22
Focusing. 25
Summarizing 27
Gatekeeping 28
Confrontation 29
Mediating 31

*The material in this chapter of the Workbook is based on "Techniques of Group Leadership" a fifteen session self-instructional workshop prepared on contract for the U.S. Department of Labor by Manpower Science Services, Inc. Over time, it has become clear that that Workshop teaches skills that are appropriate whether one is the formal leader of a group or simply a group member. This resource packet is a distillation of some parts of that Workshop: persons interested in learning about the entire Workshop should write to: Manpower Science Services, Inc., Department L, 1808 Hermitage, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104.

SOME TECHNIQUES OF GROUP LEADERSHIP*

1. Attending

I. How Do You Describe Attending?

Attending is letting a person know that you're paying attention to what he's saying or doing, so that he'll be encouraged to continue. It enables you to gain additional information and makes you more sensitive to and aware of the person.

It's usually assumed that attending is basic to what is referred to as "common courtesy." However, attending involves more than common courtesy (which is often nothing more than polite, disinterested listening) in its emphasis on active listening, and its emphasis on observation of both verbal and non-verbal communication.

II. When Do You Attend?

When you want a person to continue talking or doing what he's doing so that you can gather more information, or simply build rapport with him.

III. How Do You Attend?

A. Relax physically, so that you're comfortable and the person you're attending won't feel pressured by you.

B. Look at the person you're attending. In a group, look around at everyone from time to time.

C. Turn toward the person you're attending, lean forward in your chair, nod, smile. Be encouraging.

D. Make sure he realizes you're listening. When he's made an important point, you can restate it for emphasis. Usually saying, "yes," or "right," or "I understand," or even just "uhuh," can reassure a person that you are following what he's saying.

E. When you're not sure you've understood what's been said, interrupt and restate what you think you heard. If the speaker appears to think you still haven't understood (e.g., shakes his head, disagrees, or tries to re-explain), ask him to say it again. When he does, let him know that this time you got it by telling him so.

F. In a group, don't pay too much attention to just one or two people and neglect the others. If you "over-attend," a person may be flattered and contribute so much that he doesn't let anyone else talk. Or he may feel uncomfortable with too much attention and stop talking. Group members who are not being attended may either feel resentful, or they may be content to let someone else do all the talking.

G. Some people focus to one side of the room more easily than to the other. If you do this, make sure you scan the group often, so that you can have eye contact with every member.

2. Information Seeking

I. How Do You Describe Information Seeking?

Information Seeking adds new information to what you already know. You can ask a group member questions about himself - how he feels or thinks about particular issues, situations or events. Sometimes you get information by making statements such as, "So in this kind of situation, you would have done...," in such a way that his agreement or disagreement reflects his knowledge or views. What you learn may be opinions, attitudes or facts.

II. When Do You Use Information Seeking?

To solve problems.

... you should seek information when the group is trying to solve a problem and information that appears necessary for reaching a solution is lacking; or when information the group has appears to be inaccurate.

To get to know one another.

... you seek information when members don't know enough about one another, e.g., work experiences, areas of competence, etc.

To achieve clarity of communications.

... you seek information when you suspect that members have inaccurate ideas about what's expected and you want to know what they believe to be facts.

III. How Do You Use Information Seeking?

Using the group.

... when seeking information, encourage members to seek the information from one another. Avoid situations in which all questions are asked by you.

Simple familiar language.

... ask only one question at a time. Then wait for an answer. Then listen. Make sure you're attending.

... avoid asking long questions that are so complicated that members won't understand what you're asking.

"Yes" or "No" answers.

... avoid asking questions that can be answered by "Yes" or "No." The exception is when you want the member to make a definite commitment to one point of view or another.

Reasons for the information.

... when seeking information, tell the person what information you want, why you want it, and how you plan to use it.

Tone of voice.

... ask the question in a neutral way so that the member doesn't feel pushed to answer in a particular way, e.g., avoid sarcasm, disbelief, etc.

3. Information Giving

I. How Do You Describe Inforamtion Giving?

Giving the group facts about the topic on which the group is working. The term "facts" distinguishes this behavior from "opinion giving." Information Giving: "Company X turned down ten out of the last ten applicants with a prison record that we sent them." Opinion: "If I were you, I wouldn't tell Company X about my prison record."

Information giving has to be confirmable. In principle, there has to be a way of proving that Company X turned down ten out of the last ten applicants with prison records. The proof could be the records of the agency, or it could be the names of ten applicants with prior records. Information should also be relevant to the topic. Facts that are not related are not adding to the information needed.

II. When Do You Use Information Giving?

To solve problems.

...you give information when it's clear from what a member is saying that he has incomplete or inaccurate information. This is indicated by pointless arguments and off-topic discussions. Ideally, the members should ask for the correct information, but if they don't, it should be offered. You give information when members ask for information that they feel is needed to continue the discussion, e.g., a member may ask what the agency's policies are on missing training sessions. When you give the information, the group can go on to discuss whether the policy is good, what to do when you miss a session, etc.

To get to know one another.

... you give information when you, as group leader, or member, believe that it would be helpful for the group to know something about yourself, e.g., your expertise, experiences, interests, etc.

To achieve clarity of communications.

... you give information when a member is trying to learn a new or different way of behaving, and you want him to know how well he is doing by comparing his behavior to specific goals. This is called "feedback."

III. How Do You Use Information Giving?

Using the Group.

... when giving information, remember that the best sources of information are the group members themselves. Even when the group leader knows the facts, he should first try to discover if one of the members has the information and then have him give it. The group leader should provide or locate the information when it's needed to keep discussion moving.

Simple familiar language

... give information briefly and in a way that is easily understood and remembered, e.g., using a language style that is familiar to members, provide written handouts, etc.

... give the most important piece of information first, as it is more likely to be remembered. It also helps to present important information as close as possible to the time that it will be used, rather than too far in advance.

Reasons for the information

... when giving information make sure that the information being given is relevant to the purpose of the group. Tell why you are giving out the information, if it is not obvious.

4. Rewarding

I. How Do You Describe Rewarding?

There are at least three aspects to rewarding:

A. It gives information.

Rewarding is letting a person know that he said or did something effective in moving toward his or the group goals.

B. It recognizes and rewards past behavior.

Achieving a goal is rewarding, and delivering the goal for which someone has been working, and which he has earned by his efforts, is a reward for what that person has already done.

C. It influences future behavior.

Giving a reward encourages a particular behavior or way of thinking, so that it will occur again or occur more often.

The most effective rewarding does all three things at once: it tells a person he is making progress, it delivers the goals of his efforts, and it influences him to behave in similar ways again.

II. When Do You Reward?

A. If you've made an agreement to help a group member on a particular behavior, and he then behaves in that way, you follow through on the agreement by giving the reward.

B. When a person behaves in a way that you would like him to behave in the future.

C. You reward a person in the presence of others when he has handled a situation in a way that you would like the others to imitate.

III. How Do You Reward?

A. First, find out what would be a meaningful reward to a person.

B. Once you know what would be considered a reward, review your resources to make sure that you can reward a fellow member of your group when it is appropriate.

C. When the goal is changing a member's behavior, you should negotiate the behavior that will be rewarded. Ask the member to describe these behaviors in his own words, to make sure that you both mean the same things.

D. Attention is rewarding; we often pay attention to bad behavior and, without meaning to do so, we reward such behavior. This has the effect of encouraging the behavior to continue and others to imitate it. Try to ignore behavior that should not be continued, and quickly reward positive behavior.

E. You can help people get closer and closer to an effective way of doing something by rewarding initially for any behavior that resembles the desired behavior to some degree, then rewarding only those behaviors that come closer and closer to the behavior you want to achieve.

F. When giving someone feedback about his attempt to learn a new way of behaving, first reward those portions of his behavior that are correct, then tell him which portions need correction or further practice.

5. Responding to Feeling

I. How Do You Describe Responding to Feeling?

Responding to Feeling is recognizing what emotions are being expressed in the words or actions of members of the group. The emotions can range from anger, joy, distrust, boredom, amusement, annoyance, fear, interest, frustration, depression, to a vague pall of depressed mood or irritability hanging over the group as a whole. There are feelings which can be ascribed to individual group members, and there is also sometimes a group "mood" or "temperament." And these feelings may be shown verbally (content of what is said, tone of voice, emphasis on particular words or phrases, rapidity of speech, etc.) as well as non-verbally (through the ways people sit in their chairs, face each other or away from the group, lean forward into the discussion, or seem to be pulling back, somewhat out of the group, etc.).

Every behavior has a cognitive content (the behavior is always about something, and communicates some information), and every behavior has a feeling tone component, which may range from heavy and obvious to subtle or disguised. For example, a smile may communicate information that the person approves of something (the cognitive content) and pleasure (the feeling tone component). Even the most flat statement of fact has a feeling tone component (for example, that the person stating the fact doesn't feel ready to say how he feels about the situation described by the fact).

II. When Do You Respond to Feeling?

A. Recognizing the Feelings

The first task is to recognize the feeling components of whatever is going on. Attending is required - attending not only to what is being said, but also to how it is being said, and the body language present. Tune in to the feeling component - not the cognitive content alone. The feelings can sometimes be quite different from what the words "say" they are. It is also useful to attend to yourself and how you feel; your feelings may serve as clues to what is going on in others. If you are feeling vaguely anxious, is it that the group or some of its members are trying to make you feel anxious? If so, you have recognized that they may be feeling angry. Perhaps you are feeling anxious in response to the same thing that is making them anxious, so that your feelings are a clue to how they are feeling. In that case, you have used your feelings to recognize theirs. Perhaps you are feeling defensive. Is someone attacking you indirectly, or expecting or demanding something that you can't deliver, or are all of you feeling defensive about something?

B. Describing the Feelings

The second part of the task is to put the feeling into some kinds of words - at least to yourself - so that you can label or identify them. There are several ways to do that: you can compare the feelings you have recognized in others with similar feelings you have had, and that often suggests the words for the feelings; you can compare the current feelings with things you have experienced in the past and what brought them on; you can practice trying to describe your own feelings in words, and others' feelings, which you then verify by asking the others if you've said it the way they feel it.

C. Confirming Your Description of the Feeling

The third part of the task is to check out the accuracy of your observation and description. (Obviously, you don't "check it out" during the meeting if you've decided to make a mental note, etc. After the meeting, you can check it out with the person, e.g., "Were you sore at me today?" etc.) How you check it out, to be sure that you aren't simply assuming that everything you feel and perceive is caused by the group, depends on when and how you are going to respond to the feelings, once you have identified them. Read on for a discussion of how to respond to feelings.

Deciding when to give what response to feelings (a "response" can be choosing not to react, as well as reacting), depends on the purpose of the group. Discussion of feelings may be the prime purpose of some groups, but in other groups, solving a particular problem (such as how to behave in a job interview) may be more important. In the latter case, the emphasis is less on exploring feelings than it is on what the participants can do to make the situation come out right.

III. How Do You Respond to Feeling?

A. If you have decided to acknowledge the feeling, you can use attending behavior to do so. Try to indicate to the member and to group that you understand the member's emotion. Make clear that you are not judging him for feeling that way, and that you and the group respect his right to have those feelings. One effective way to do that is to try to state the member's feelings in such a way that he agrees that you have really captured how he feels (not what he said, but what he is feeling).

B. You goal is to respond in the best interests of the client and the group. Sometimes your own emotional reactions provide clues to what is going on in the group, so self-awareness of your own feelings can be very helpful. But if your own emotional responses get in the way of dealing honestly with members' feelings (for example, when you give vent to your feelings that are unrelated to what is going on with others in the group, or when you bottle your feelings up so completely that you come across as cold, unresponsive, or fake in your responses to the feelings of group members), you should explore the problem with yourself, a trusted colleague, or anyone else who can help you.

C. If you encourage an individual to look into and explore his feelings at length, make sure that he's not telling more than he intended or than he or the group can handle and do something about. It is useless - and destructive - to encourage people to re-experience painful feelings without doing anything to reduce the pain or resolve the feelings.

6. Focusing.

I. How Do You Describe Focusing?

Focusing is calling the attention of the group to something that has been said or that has happened in order to a) highlight it so that the group will realize what has gone on, or b) bring the discussion back to the agreed upon business of the group, so that it can achieve the goals negotiated in the group's contract.

II. When Do You Use Focusing?

A. When a contribution that could move the group toward its goals is ignored by the other members, e.g., they do not use a good question, suggestion, or piece of information because the contribution comes from someone with low status in the group, or was said quietly or in a confusing way.

B. When the discussion shifts from the group's topic without any agreement to shift, and continue off-topic for several minutes without any attempt to return to the original topic.

C. When you find yourself having to use focusing repeatedly in one meeting, you should ask yourself why the group is continually straying off the topic. Perhaps the topic is producing too much anxiety, perhaps it is of little interest to most members, perhaps the group thinks you want to change the topic. Perhaps there is another issue that members really want to discuss, requiring renegotiating the contract. At that point, you focus by asking the group about their continual drift from the subject. This would be an instance of focusing to draw the attention of the group to its inability, over time, to stick with the topics it has originally chosen.

III. How Do You Focus?

If you recognize the need for focusing, first wait to see if members of the group will perform this function. If you have waited a few minutes and no one uses focusing, look for an opening to call the attention of group members, politely but firmly, to whatever it is you wish to highlight. You may have to insist that the group attend to your focusing behavior. As an example, suppose the group has been talking about ways to explain a police record to a prospective employer. Pete thinks honesty might be the best policy. This gets John going on a lengthy tirade about "pigs down on black people." You might then use focusing as follows: "John, the way in which police behave toward black people is very important, I agree, but talking about it right now won't help Pete on his next job interview."

When you are focusing the group's attention on a contribution that has been ignored because it was misunderstood or not heard, clarify the contribution by rephrasing it into words that are commonly understood in the group, or ask the person who made the contribution to restate it so everyone can hear it.

When people are always going off topic either because something else has come up which they feel is more important, or because the current topic isn't as important as the group thought it was when the contract was negotiated, renegotiate the contract to add the new topic. You can agree to take up the new topic at once, or you can decide to schedule it for later, after the more important agreed-on topics have been covered.

7. Summarizing

I. How Do You Describe Summarizing?

Summarizing is the process of drawing together and restating a number of prior responses and then seeking agreement or correction from the group members, until a summary has been produced that everyone considers accurate.

II. When Do You Use Summarizing?

A. At the beginning of a meeting, you want everyone to start from the same point. You summarize previous activities of the group that relate to this session - for example, you may summarize what was decided about the topic, or you may state what questions were left unanswered.

B. Members express confusion about an issue being discussed, and ask for a clear statement of the problem.

C. A topic has been discussed at length and points that have already been made begin to recur.

D. A sub-goal of the group appears to have been reached, and closure is needed so that the group can move on.

E. Someone introduces a new topic before the previous one has been settled (in which case, summarizing is used to determine whether a shift of topic is acceptable to the group).

F. One member has been dominating the discussion, and you want to tactfully involve others. That is, you use summarizing as a way of gatekeeping (below).

G. The meeting is concluding, and it is appropriate to draw together what has been said or done in order to: 1. compare it with goals of this meeting; and 2. lay the basis for the next meeting.

III. How Do You Summarize?

A good summary follows a fair amount of group interaction. If every contribution of each member is summarized, you are attending, not summarizing. When summarizing, be brief; exclude elements of the preceding discussion that were not relevant to the present situation. A good summary rewards members by identifying them with their contributions, does not add new data to the discussion and includes a statement that seeks agreement (or correction leading to agreement) from the group. It is usually preferable to have group members summarize (rather than the group leader). Members who know they are going to be asked to summarize are likely to attend more actively. In addition, when members summarize, the group leader gets a feeling for the ways in which group members see what has been going on in the group.

8. Gatekeeping

I. How Do You Describe Gatekeeping?

Gatekeeping helps all members of the group to participate by limiting those members who monopolize the discussion and by encouraging low participators to talk more.

II. When Do You Gatekeep?

After about one-fourth of the meeting time, if you observe that:

- one or two members have dominated the conversation;
- some members have not participated at all;
- most comments are directed at the group's leader, with little interaction among members so that the leader is speaking a great deal more than anyone else.

Then it's time to gatekeep. As you get to know your group, you may find that certain people tend to participate in a predictable way. At that point, you may not want to wait until one-fourth of the meeting has gone by to gatekeep. In other words, it may be necessary to intervene earlier before certain less productive contribution patterns recur.

III. How Do You Gatekeep?

When negotiating a contract with a group, explain the importance of gatekeeping as a way of fostering the group's development. Encourage each member to gatekeep for himself and others, rather than relying on you to do it all the time. Scan the group to keep track of those who vary widely from a fairly equal share of "talk-time." When scanning, watch for non-verbal "I want to participate' cues from under-talkers, e.g., leaning forward, an abrupt change in facial expression, starting to speak but getting cut off.

Always combine limitations of over-talkers with invitations to under-talkers. For example, "That's a good point, John. What do some of the rest of you think about that?" (Pause - then, if there are no talkers, "Pete, how about you?") Be sure to praise contributions of under-talkers particularly when you think their low level of participation is a result of shyness in the group. Two notes of caution: First, be careful not to give undue praise if the contribution is off-topic; second, some people say little but what they say is to the point and a valuable contribution to the group. It is important to make allowances for the low participation style of some members.

9. Confrontation

I. How Do You Describe Confrontation?

In confrontation, a member (or a group, or portion of a group) is presented with an inconsistency between something he has said or done and something else he has said or done, or between something he has said or done and an objective fact.

II. When Do You Use Confrontation?

A. The member's inconsistent behavior is getting him into trouble with the group, or with his employment situation, e.g., a member who has spoken infrequently in the group complains that people always ignore her wishes without recognizing that she rarely tells people what she wants; another member complains bitterly about the annoying sexual advances from the men in her office, although her behavior in the group is quite flirtatious toward the male members.

B. The member does not appear to realize that there is an inconsistency in his behavior, and therefore does nothing about it.

C. The group or part of the group is behaving in a way that is inconsistent with its contract and has made no effort to change its contract accordingly.

D. An important point about timing: confrontation is not likely to work unless the members, sub-group or group that is confronted has agreed to a contract with regard to this group. Accordingly, you should only use confrontation after the contract has been negotiated.

III. How Do You Use Confrontation?

It often helps to remind the member(s) of that portion of the contract that relates to the inconsistency you hope to eliminate and of his (or their) earlier agreement to that contract. This makes the confrontation an effort to help achieve a goal that they agreed to work toward, rather than a personal attack.

When using confrontation, relax physically so that you are in a comfortable position. Avoid actions that could be perceived by the client as critical ar attacking. Use your normal tone of voice in informing the member of the inconsistency you see. Members are often more emotional when confronting one another and that's OK, but you should try to present a constructive, friendly approach. However, don't appear pleased with the confrontation itself.

It's best to be brief - limit your statement to one or two sentences. State exactly what the discrepant behavior and/or information is, without explanation or apologies. Experience has shown that you may have to repeat a confrontation a number of times - gently, but firmly - before some individuals will see or accept the inconsistency in what they are saying or doing. If the inconsistency you've selected is apparent to the group, you should encourage them to present their views on this matter.

Inviting the group to confront one member can lead people into scapegoating and isolating one member; in addition, if everyone is busy harping on one guy, they're less likely to be working on their own problems. Sometimes groups dodge major issues by applying unnecessarily severe pressure on one member. When and if this happens, it may be necessary for the group leader to confront the group with the discrepancy between the group's contract concerning such things as mutual helpfulness or goal achievement, and their overemphasis on one member's problem. Sometimes another group member will confront the group with their failure to be helpful; this is preferable.

Remember that what you are after in confrontation is an addition to an individual's contract with the group. You want him to realize that a discrepancy exists, and you want him to agree to work on reducing the discrepancy. To achieve these ends, you would probably do well to avoid arguing with the individual if he offers rationalizations about the discrepancy you've highlighted. Stick to your (Information Giving) approach.

10. Mediating

I. How Do You Describe Mediating?

Mediating involves putting yourself in a neutral position between opponents in order to avoid or resolve a disagreement that is keeping the group from reaching its goals.

II. When Do You Use Mediating?

Disagreement and conflict are natural in any group and are often quite productive. They can also interfere with the group's work when opinions become polarized, when interaction becomes more emotional than rational, and when impasses occur. When a difference of opinion is (or appears likely to be) of sufficient duration or intensity to disrupt the group's work on its contracted goals, mediating can be used. Specific behaviors to watch for include the following: members stop trying to understand one another, and instead, champion their own causes without attending to others; voices are raised; people look strained, turn away or push back from the table as if to escape from the group; an argument continues for some time with no resolution, etc.

Mediating is used when a certain degree and kind of unresolved conflict exists in the group. In order to recognize the point at which mediating is called for, you need to have some idea of the "normal" level of conflict that can be handled comfortably by group members. In other words, the better you know your group, the more likely it is that you will be able to use mediating on time rather than jumping in too early (which stops a potentially useful exchange) or intervening so late that irreparable damage occurs, e.g., members decide that it is impossible to help one another in this group and quit.

III. How Do You Mediate?

A. Build a Reputation for Fairness

The successful mediator is someone who is viewed as fair by all parties concerned. This kind of reputation can be earned over time by attending equally to different points of view, and by discussing controversial issues without being trapped into an agressive defense or offense on behalf of one point of view. You may certainly have your own opinion, and may state it, but you recognize that others may see things differently and can come to their own conclusions.

B. Encourage Group Members to Mediate.

Before trying to use mediating, if you are in the role of leader, you should allow a period of time for group members to attempt to play this role. If they react to the controversy by drawing back as if to say, "You're the leader, you handle it!" you should ask yourself if the group members can handle this situation. If they can, encourage them to do so; if not, you may have to use mediating yourself. In that case, you should take the initiative and firmly call a halt to the proceedings.

C. Clarify the Issues.

Ask the opponents to restate their positions; if this doesn't work ask other members to do so, or even ask the opponents to restate the point of view of the person they oppose. It is essential that proponents of a point of view confirm that a fair statement of their positions has been made.

D. Invoke Positive Elements.

Mediating can be done by appealing to group harmony, group goals, old friendships or anything related to the contract that will remind the "combatants" of the positive tie between them. In this vein, humor is often useful for purposes of "tension decontamination."

E. Suggested Steps in Mediating.

Move next to a proposed resolution; the following order of priorities is a good one:

- search for more information on which to make a choice;
- seek for a compromise position;
- ask for a vote;
- agree to set the issue aside temporarily until tempers have cooled;
- suggest that members be allowed to maintain their own position, i.e., agree to disagree;
- agree to go up the "abstraction ladder" until you find something on which everyone can agree, e.g., "Well, maybe you can't agree on this point, but we have agreed that everyone in this group is supposed to present his own point of view as honestly as he can.

F. Mediating and the Contract.

When one position appears to you to be consistent with the contract, and the other is in violation of the contract, you may have to take the risk of supporting the pro-contract position (or renegotiate the contract when tempers have cooled); the risk is that you may resolve the issue at the cost of alienating one or more members. If it's a question of group survival, you may have no choice. Hopefully, you will have used other approaches successfully, so that you will not reach this point. Alienated members might quit on the spot - always a jolt for those who stay behind - or they may stay, harboring a strong resentment about the fact that you "took sides" against them.

G. What Happens if There is a Loser?

If there is a decision in which one point of view "loses," you should pay particular attention to the response of the "defeated parties." They may quit or withdraw from their normal level of participation in the group. If this happens, you may want to make an extra effort to reinvolve such persons in the activities of the group by such things as gatekeeping in their favor, attending to them, focusing on their contributions, etc.

LODI
PARTICIPANT'S
WORKBOOK

CHAPTER
11

Before we go on to the next part of this chapter, there are a number of things we might consider when planning future brainstorming sessions.

1. Location: Where you decide to get together to "Brainstorm" makes more difference than you might think. The typical staff meeting room might be a very uninviting place. Therefore, if it's at all possible, a "Brainstorming" session should be held in a room where everyone can be comfortable, in whatever way they might define that. A nearby coffee shop, banquet room, rented conference room, or even someone's living room, could serve for the meeting. It should be a place that everyone likes.

2. What to Wear: Again, something that may not seem important, but is, is what you wear during a "Brainstorming" session. Some people can't think unless they're in regular business attire; some people can't think if they are. You should wear something that lets you feel relaxed and un-self-conscious.

3. Time: You should give yourself enough time, an open-ended period if possible. This means don't "Brainstorm" right before lunch when everyone is looking at their watch, and don't start at 4:15 when everyone is tired and wrapping up for the day. One possibility is combining the meeting with lunch, moving right into the discussion without leaving the room. When to stop is also important and should be decided in advance. A good length for the "Brainstorming" part of a session is 15 to 25 minutes. You should stop when you reach your time limit.

(SAMPLE)

MEMORANDUM

To : All Staff Members
From : LODI Workshop Group
Subject: SETTING PRIORITIES FOR AGENCY NEEDS

As part of the training workshop on Local Office Decision-Making and Implementation in which we are participating, we have developed a list of things we thought could be worked on to improve our operations. At this point, we need your involvement in deciding which are the most important. Your help will insure a unified staff effort in selecting the one which is of the greatest importance to all of us.

Please go through the attached list and rate each statement by circling the numbers to its right which best represents how important you think it is to you and the office as a whole.

Space has been provided at the end of the list for you to add (and if you wish, to describe) any concerns which you think should be included in the list.

When all the lists have been returned, we will tabulate all of the ratings and prepare a second list showing those which you felt were of most importance. In this way, you will see how staff as a whole rated each statement. This list will be returned to you for another rating. We will then be able to identify the need which is of greatest concern to all of us.

Please complete your ratings and return the list to (Name) by (Time) , (Day/Date) .

PLEASE DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THE LIST: AND PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS YOUR RATINGS WITH OTHERS BEFORE YOU OR THEY HAVE COMPLETED THIS FORM. WHAT WE WANT IS YOUR OPINION.

(SAMPLE)

PRIORITIES FOR AGENCY NEEDS

1. Circle the number opposite the statement which describes best how important the statement is to you.
2. Please DO NOT put your name on this sheet.

STATEMENT OF NEED	NOT IMPORTANT	FAIRLY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT
1. We need to be able to process more applicants in less time than we do at present.	0	1	2	3
2. We need to organize a better applicant intake procedure.	0	1	2	3
3. We need to know more about the resources of other agencies in town.	0	1	2	3
4. We need to do something about the tardiness of staff members for work and meetings.	0	1	2	3
5. We need better information about what tasks each staff department and staff member is responsible for.	0	1	2	3
6. Etc.				

Please feel free to add other needs that are of concern to you. If you wish, you might also state your reasons for suggesting those needs. Please number each statement that you add.

EXAMPLE:

	NEED STATEMENT	NOT IMPORTANT	FARILY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT
1.	We need to be able to process more applicants in less time.	0	1	2	3
		5 x0 0 +	8 x1 8 +	3 x2 6 +	2 x3 6=20
2.	We need to organize a better applicant intake procedure.	0	1	2	3
		1 x0 1	4 x1 4	6 x2 12	7 x3 21=37
3.	Etc.				

Arrange the needs statements in a list with the need statement having the highest value first.

The new list, rearranged according to the importance of each statement, and showing the total points each statement received, should be resubmitted to the staff. You should tell the staff that the list has been rearranged to show what they think is most important and ask them to rate the statements again, just as they did before (private rating, by a particular deadline, etc.) But this time ask them to rate only the 5 statements (or whatever numcer the LODI group decided) that the staff, as a group, thinks are the most important needs to be resolved.

EXAMPLE:

	POINTS RECEIVED LAST ROUND	NEED STATEMENT	NOT IMPORTANT	FAIRLY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT
1.	37	We need to organize a better applicant intake procedure.	0	1	2	3
2.	20	We need to be able to process more applicants in less time.	0	1	2	3
3.	Etc.					

Practical Uses of Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a very old technique: it's said that Alexander the Great used an early version of it to draw forth "creative" battle plans from his generals. It's use is recommended whenever you are faced with a problem that does not have an obvious solution and a fresh approach is needed. It's also useful when you want to increase the participation of some group members who usually "take a back seat" when the group is making a decision. Brainstorming could be used as follows:

A. An intra-agency committee that was created to deal with problems of interal communication was composed of persons from different levels of the organization, but was getting very little participation from it's lower echelon representatives. Brainstorming was used to increase their participation in the group's deliberations.

B. A group of clients were meeting to learn effective job-seeking skills. They were very pessimistic about their chances of finding a decent job. Brainstorming was used to create a list of job possibilities that many of the members had never considered.

Illustration

A CETA agency encountered difficulty in disseminating information to the community's young people about the agency's summer job programs. They discovered that traditional forms of advertising in newspapers, and on the local radio station were not reaching the youth in the high unemployment neighborhoods. In a meeting with summer staff, Brainstorming was used to create some new and better solutions to this problem. The result was a suggestion to use ice cream vendor's trucks and push-carts as mobile sign boards. It was found that the ice cream truck was often a gethering spot for young people: placing signs on the trucks that advertised summer jobs was a highly effective way of contacting young people. In the staff members' opinions, this use of ice cream vendors might never have been thought of if Brainstorming had not been used.

Practical Uses of the Delphi Technique

The Delphi Technique was designed to assist groups achieve consensus and commitment to group decisions, where members have significantly different values, opinions and needs. It could be used as follows:

A. To obtain suggestions from manpower trainers and trainees about their training priorities;

B. To reach agreement on the professional and personal qualities considered to be of the greatest importance when hiring key administrative personnel;

C. To forecast community employment trends that would require additional programs in a CETA agency.

Illustration

A CETA agency experienced difficulty in planning and conducting its programs because its citizens advisory board could not develop a clear statement of program priorities. To deal with this problem, the staff drafted lists of policies dealing with three areas: which mix of client characteristics should be given priority (e.g., minortiy racial or ethnic membership, offender status, physical ahndicap, alternative source of income, etc.); which program outcome should be emphasized (e.g., increase in public service to the community, immediate job finding, increasing applicant potential for long term employment, etc.), and which approach to achieving outcomes should be stressed (e.g., creating a job exchange for disadvantaged persons, providing employability training, adopting an advocary position toward the community's labor market, etc.).

The lists were presented at a board meeting, and after two rounds, consensus was reached on priorities for the following program year. The board members were so pleased with the results that they proposed the use of this technique to the County Board of Supervisors for achieving agreement on their manpower program priorities.

Summary Outline

DETERMINING NEEDS

Chapter II

1. "Brainstorming" is a technique that is used to create as many novel ideas as possible about some topic or problem.

2. There are some basic rules for "Brainstorming":
    a. any idea about a topic or problem may be expressed;
    b. no criticism of another person's ideas is allowed;
    c. all ideas should be displayed, e.g., on newsprint, on a chalkboard, etc.;
    d. combining and improving ideas by group members is encouraged;
    e. the group should strive for the largest number of ideas possible, within a pre-determined time limit.

3. "Brainstorming" is likely to work better if certain conditions prevail:
    a. the "Brainstorming" session takes place in a comfortable setting that everyone likes;
    b. when "Brainstorming," people should be dressed comfortably;
    c. don't "Brainstorm" when everybody is tired, or ready to leave for lunch or home.

4. Once a list has been compiled, cluster the ideas by topic and delete the ideas that are clearly impractical.

5. The Delphi Technique is used to achieve group consensus on the priority ranking of items such as needs, goals, etc.

6. The Delphi Technique is used as follows:
    a. circulate a list of items (in this case, statements of needs) to all staff with instructions to rank order the items privately and anonymously;

b. leave space for people who did not participate in creating the original list to add items of importance, and to include these new items in their ranking;

c. total the responses and re-circulate the list, re-ordered according to which item recieved the highest total score, which received the next highest score, and so forth, and showing totals each item received;

d. staff are to rank order the 3 or 5 items that are most important to them;

e. if consensus is not yet clear, then the list can be re-circulated, showing the totals from the second rating;

f. if consensus on the list cannot be achieved after the third round of ranking, staff should negotiate their differences in a group meeting.

g. the final results of Delphi - a prioritized list of items - should be circulated to all staff.

7. An alternate approach to prioritizing a list of items is described in the Resource Packet, "The Paired Comparison Technique."

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CHAPTER
III

Exercise #1:

Read each of the goal statements written below, and determine which word or words identify the "target" of each statement, then underline or place a circle around these words.

1. In the future, all new staff members will attend orientation sessions.
2. We should increase the number of visits made by counselors to employees.
3. We want to create a procedure by which tape recorders will not be taken from the building unless a written requisition is first submitted to the office manager.
4. The number of follow-up interviews that take place at job sites should be doubled.
5. The waiting time for clients who wish to see an interviewer will not exceed 10 minutes.

E

Exercise #2:

Read each of the goal statements written below, and identify the specific results or actions in each statement by underlining the proper words or placing a circle around them.

1. Receptionists should ask each person entering the office who or what they want within 5 minutes of the time they enter the office.
2. Staff will increase the number of new jobs available to enrollees.
3. Staff members will appreciate the importance of filling out requisitions for using agency tape recorders.

Examples of Criteria of Success:

1. There will be a 20% increase in the number of applicants requesting service in the next three months.
2. At least 50% of the applicants will still be on non-temporary jobs 90 days after placement.
3. Complaints of sex discrimination in hiring policies will be reduced by 80%.

Exercise #3:

Does the statement refer to an objective need or a subjective need?

1. ______________________ It's important for more people in this office to be satisfied with their jobs.

2. ______________________ When clients come here they shouldn't have to wait more than 10 minutes for service.

3. ______________________ All of the counselors want privacy for themselves and for their clients.

4. ______________________ The boss wants staff to be more sensitive to job development opportunities.

5. ______________________ A month from now, we should have increased the number of job listings by 10%.

Exercise #4:

For each goal statement underline and mark:

Target

Results/Actions

Criterion

Target Criterion Results/Actions

1. Interviewers will take five minutes or less to fill out a client's control records.

2. Reduce the number of clients who do not keep their appointments by 80%.

3. Every week, two staff members who have never visited job sites to which enrollees are sent, will visit one site.

4. The number of pre-employment interviews clients have should be reduced by 25%.

5. Hot coffee will be made and ready for staff comsumption by 9:00 a.m. each morning.

Indicators of Staff Cooperation:

1. Staff members respond frequently to requests for assistance from other staff.
2. Staff members volunteer often to help others in the performance of their duties.
3. Staff members perform their own responsibilities in such a way as to minimize demands on other staff.
4. Several staff members have after hours friendship ties.
5. Staff members rarely make derogatory remarks about other staff members behind their backs.

PRACTICAL USES OF WRITTEN GOAL STATEMENTS

Having clear, concrete sign posts which measure progress to a desired result is important to every facet of the internal operation and service delivery of your organization. Written goal statements can apply to more than the process of this workshop.

HOW CAN WRITTEN GOAL STATEMENTS BE USED IN YOUR EVERYDAY JOB PERFORMANCE?

Organizations similar to yours have found that translating needs into goals can be very effective in providing criteria for measuring their efforts and outcomes in these areas:

a. counselors have assisted their clients to turn vague career needs into written goal statements which could be used by the clients to determine whether or not their particular career needs were being satisfied.

b. an office staff used specific written goal statements as the criteria to direct their activities and determine their progress towards successfully resolving client complaints at the local level and by doing so reducing the number of dissatisfactions referred to the county board of supervisors.

Other areas where you can use this technique are:

a. to specify what you intend to accomplish each week in your own job.

b. to specify your short and long term personal career development.

c. to specify what you want staff members to learn in an in-service training program.

Summary Outline

GOALS

Chapter III

1. There are two categories of needs and goal statements:
    - a. Objective ones based on those things that can be observed and measured.
    - b. Subjective ones based on feelings, or opinions which are difficult to quantify.
2. Goal statements must contain three specific parts:
    - a. The Target is the person, place, or thing towards which the goal is desired.
    - b. The Results or Actions are the outcomes which are expected from the change oriented activity.
    - c. The Criterion is the degree or amount of change expected.
3. Subjective needs must be supplemented with indicators that specify or describe the desired results or actions.
4. Subjective need indicators should be re-written in the form of goal statements specifying target, results or actions, outcome and criterion.
5. Further use of indicators in rewriting subjective need statements into goal statements involves categorizing these indicators into three type:
    - a. Those that must be there.
    - b. Those that may be there, and
    - c. Those that may not be there.

Once indicators have been sorted out in this way, we can use this list to determine whether or not the goal has actually been achieved.

LODI PARTICIPANT'S WORKBOOK

CHAPTER IV

Summary Outline

CREATING PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES

Chapter IV

1. Once specific goals have been selected, several possible solutions should be developed.

2. "Brainstorming" can be used to create alternative solutions.

3. Sometimes this process is enhanced through individual "Brainstorming" followed by group "Brainstorming."

4. Once an array of ideas has been created through "Brainstorming" they should be clustered; irrational ideas should be discarded if they:

   a. don't help achieve the goals;

   b. are prohibited by law or regulation;

   c. are totally non-serious; or

   d. would require total system changes.

5. If it's hard to tell whether or not an idea should be discarded, keep it.

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CHAPTER
V

ERCISE 'A': Suppose you drive to the market to shop for the week's groceries. You fill your basket and proceed to the check-out stand. While standing in line, you talk to a neighbor who tells you some new things that are happening in the neighborhood.

In terms of this incident which of the following items is a tangible cost, an intangible cost, a tangible payoff or an intangible payoff. Write the appropriate term in the blank to the right of the item.

a. The groceries you bring home. ____________________

b. The money you paid for the groceries. ____________

c. The information you picked up from your neighbor. _____

d. Finding a sale on an item that's on your shopping list.

____

e. The other work around the house that didn't get done because you went marketing. ____________________

Now look at the correct answers on the next page. If you have any questions, discuss them with the group.

Answers to Exercise 'A'

a. Tangible payoff - you achieved your objective of getting more food in the house.

b. Tangible cost - the cost of the food

c. Intangible payoff - it's difficult to attach a dollar value to information but it's nice to know what's going on.

d. Tangible payoff - the payoff here (saving money by buying something that's on sale) is the greater number of things you can buy for the same amount of money.

e. Intangible cost - you can't attach a dollar value to the aggravation of other household tasks waiting for your attention at home.

TANGIBLE COSTS*

Buying a New Car		Leasing a Car		Buying a Used Car	
Purchase Price	3,700.00			Purchase Price	900.00
Down Payment	300.00	Deposit	115.00	Down Payment	300.00
	3,400.00				600.00
Finance Charge (8% add-on x 24 mos.)	544.00			Finance Charge (8% add-on x 24 mos.)	96.00
Total Note	3,944.00			Total Note	696.00
Monthly Payments	164.33	Monthly Lease Payments	115.00	Monthly Payments	29.00
				Friendly mechanic's fee for looking car over	25.00
				Old car repairs	250.00
Total Payout, 2 yrs.	4,244.00	Total Payout, 2 yrs.	2,875.00	Total Payout, 2 yrs.	1,271.00
Wholesale Value	1,600.00	Refund of Deposit	115.00	Wholesale Value	325.00
Net Cost, 2 yrs.	2,644.00	Net Cost, 2 yrs.	2,760.00	Net Cost, 2 yrs.	946.00

* Costs do not include insurance, maintenance, standard repairs, license plates, or taxes, which must be paid, and would be equal for the new car or lease car but less for a used car. Nor do the costs account for the tax deduction for interest paid on the loan.

Practical Uses of Payoff-Cost Comparisons

Comparing tangible and intangible payoffs and costs could be used in making a variety of decisions. For example:

A. When deciding how large a percentage of the budget should be allocated to each of the agency's programs, the programs might be compared in relation to their payoffs and costs;

B. If overtime work must be done, the alternative of hiring additional staff or having current staff work overtime could be compared in terms of payoffs and costs.

Illustration

A group of counselors in a CETA agency adapted the LODI payoff-cost form for use with clients when discussing the relative advantages of different plans for resolving the client's problems. When clients learned to identify and place in writing the tangible and intangible consequences involved in several different courses of action, they were able to make more rational decisions than they had in the past, and expressed satisfaction with the decisions they had made. In addition, the counselors noted a sharp reduction in the number of clients who returned, disappointed or angry because the plans they had made did not work out as expected. Not only were clients more satisfied with the counseling they had received, but they also had learned a procedure they could use by themselves when they had other important decisions to make.

Summary Outline

RELATIVE ADVANTAGE

Chapter V

1. RELATIVE ADVANTAGE: achieving the best balance of tangible and intangible payoffs and costs for any approach to a problem.

2. DEFINITIONS:

Tangibles are those things which can be observed and measured.

Intangibles are hard to define things such as feelings, e.g., goodwill, morale, and staff cooperation.

Costs are the tangible and intangible resources used to accomplish an objective.

A Tangible cost would be staff salaries, hours spent on a project, etc.

An Intangible cost would be loss of goodwill, loss of community support, or poor client morale or motivation.

Payoffs are the anticipated or realized outcomes which result from your intervention efforts. Payoffs can usually be defined in terms of goals.

Tangible payoffs would be increased funding for the agency, better client placement rates, or a decrease in client unemployment.

Intangible payoffs would be improved staff morale, better community goodwill, or increased client motivation.

3. COMPARING INTANGIBLE PAYOFFS:

a. Brainstorm a list of possible payoffs.

b. Assign a value from 1 to 7 to each item based on its importance to you. (If this is done as a group activity, have each person rank the items, then compute an average value. Average value is computed by adding all the individual scores then dividing that total by the number of individuals).

c. Construct a diagram with the payoffs listed vertically down the left side of the page and the alternative solutions listed horizontally across the top of the page.

Example:

	Value of Payoff	Alternative #1	Alternative #2	Alternative #3
Payoff				
Payoff				
Payoff				
Payoff				

d. If the alternative will provide the payoff, place the value of the payoff under that alternative's column.

If the alternative will neither provide the payoff nor detract from the payoff place a zero in the column.

If the alternative will negatively effect the payoff, enter the negative value for the payoff in the column.

e. Add the columns. The column with the highest positive value should be the best alternative with regard to intangible payoffs.

4. TO DETERMINE RELATIVE ADVANTAGE:
   a. List all tangible costs and payoffs.
   b. Compute the dollar values.
   c. Determine the alternative with the highest tangible cost.
   d. Then, determine the alternative with the best intangible payoffs.
   e. Assemble all data: compare alternatives and select the one with the best relative advantage.

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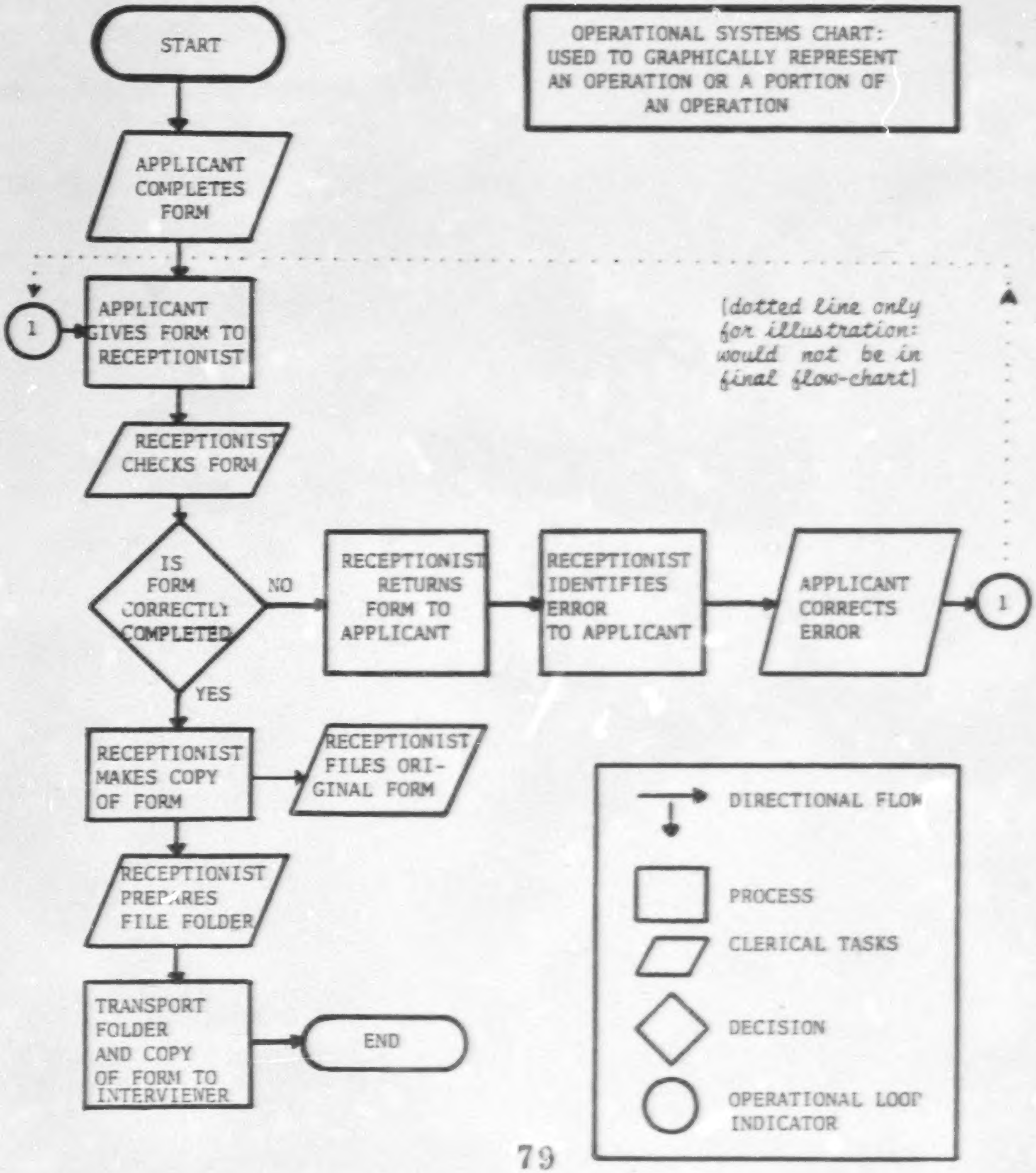
CHAPTER
VI

FLOW CHART

SIMPLIFIED INITIAL PROCESSING OF APPLICANTS


OPERATIONAL SYSTEMS CHART: USED TO GRAPHICALLY REPRESENT AN OPERATION OR A PORTION OF AN OPERATION

[dotted line only for illustration: would not be in final flow-chart]

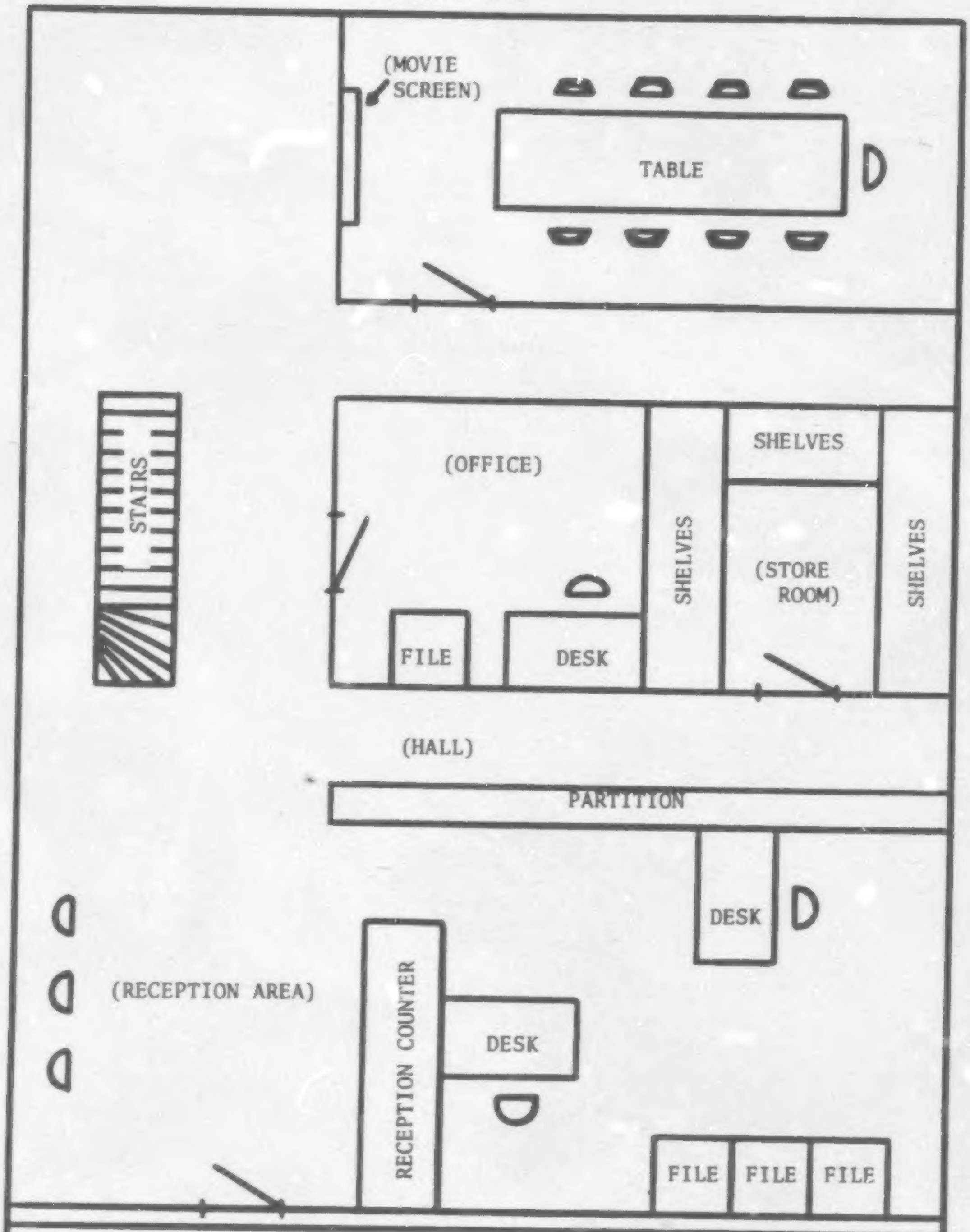
START
APPLICANT COMPLETES FORM
1
APPLICANT GIVES FORM TO RECEPTIONIST
RECEPTIONIST CHECKS FORM
IS FORM CORRECTLY COMPLETED
NO
RECEPTIONIST RETURNS FORM TO APPLICANT
RECEPTIONIST IDENTIFIES ERROR TO APPLICANT
APPLICANT CORRECTS ERROR
1
YES
RECEPTIONIST MAKES COPY OF FORM
RECEPTIONIST FILES ORIGINAL FORM
RECEPTIONIST PREPARES FILE FOLDER
TRANSPORT FOLDER AND COPY OF FORM TO INTERVIEWER
END
DIRECTIONAL FLOW
PROCESS
CLERICAL TASKS
DECISION
OPERATIONAL LOOP INDICATOR

DRAW YOUR FLOW CHART HERE:

PROJECT: DEVELOP AN OFFICE NEWSLETTER

PROJECT TASKS	1ST WEEK	2ND WEEK	3RD WEEK	4TH WEEK	5TH WEEK	6TH WEEK	7TH WEEK
DEVELOP LIST OF SUBJECT MATTER	↔	↔					
CIRCULATE LIST FOR STAFF INPUT		↔	↔				
DEVELOP LAYOUT AND FORMAT DESIGN		↔	↔				
CIRCULATE FORMAT IDEAS TO STAFF				↔			
REVISE FORMAT BASED ON STAFF INPUT					↔		
SET-UP PRODUCTION SCHEDULE	↔	↔	↔				
ASSIGN PRODUCTION TASKS	↔						
PILOT TEST INPUT AND PRODUCTION SCHEDULE						↔	
REVISIONS BASED ON PILOT TESTING							↔
WRITE AND PUBLISH PROCEDURES GUIDE					↔	↔	
PUBLISH FIRST MONTHLY NEWSLETTER							

PREMISES CHART


(MOVIE SCREEN)
TABLE
STAIRS
(OFFICE)
SHELVES
SHELVES
(STORE ROOM)
SHELVES
FILE
DESK
(HALL)
PARTITION
DESK
(RECEPTION AREA)
RECEPTION COUNTER
DESK
FILE
FILE
FILE

ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS CHART:

USED WHEN CONSIDERATION IS BEING GIVEN TO THE LOCATION OR MOVEMENT OF PEOPLE, EQUIPMENT, OR PAPERWORK FLOW.

Practical Exercise

On the next page is a sample Personnel Selection Worksheet which was prepared to show how four persons could be considered for a project task. Using the information on the worksheet, the group should work for consensus in regard to each of the statements below.

1. ________________ is really not a very good choice because he/she has little or no interest in this task.
2. ______________ is the most knowledgeable individual.
3. However, _____________ has more skills, experience, in this area.
4. If we considered time alone, ____________ would certainly be the best choice.
5. Both ________ and ________ should be considered for the job.
6. But it appears from the data that ____________ would be our best choice.

SAMPLE

Personnel Selection Worksheet

TASK: Planning Office Newsletter

Instructions:

1. Enter the names of individuals who are candidates for the position.
2. Enter a check in the yes or no column under each prospects name for each question.

Candidates

Qualification Criteria	MARA		KATHY		ERIC		HANK	
	a Yes	b No	a Yes	b No	a Yes	b No	a Yes	b No
Interest:								
Does he/she want the task or job?	x		x		x			x
Knowledge:								
Participated in program development.		x		x	x		x	
Related educational background.	x		x			x	x	
Skill:								
Related work experience.	x		x		x			x
Related technical training.	x			x		x		x
Related personal experience or activities.	x			x		x		x
Time:								
Time is available.		x	x		x		x	
Project eliminates present tasks.		x	x			x		x
Realignment of tasks will not be necessary		x	x			x		x
Column totals	5	4	6	3	4	5	3	6
Column A minus Column B	1		3		-1		-3	
Most Likely Candidate (Highest number of checks)								

Practice Exercise Answers:

1. Hank 2. Hank 3. Mara 4. Kathy 5. Mara and Kathy
6. Kathy

(SAMPLE FORM)

PHYSICAL RESOURCES PLANNING GUIDE

RESOURCE	ON HAND	NOT ON HAND	AVAILABLE (RESOURCE)	NOT PRESENTLY AVAILABLE: PROPOSED PROCUREMENT PLAN
EQUIPMENT				
SUPPLIES				
FACILITIES				

Practical Uses of Charts

There are many ways in which you might apply the use of charting to your own job or office other than any use you may have made of them for the Workshop project.

Where Might Charts be Applicable?

1. Is your office, section, or work area organized as efficiently as it could be? Perhaps a Premises Chart could help you think of a lay-out which is more efficient, saving time that can be better invested in other tasks.

2. When is next year's funding proposal due to the advisory board, regional office? When must you have the first draft written and typed to meet that deadline? When do you need the statistics from this years program to begin writing the draft? A Time-Task Chart or P.E.R.T. Chart could be very useful in getting the report done on time without the overtime and stress usually associated with deadlines.

3. How are complaints handled? How does an application for assistance move through the office? What is the process by which clients are selected for training programs? Are all of these steps necessary? Where are the bottlenecks? A Flow Chart might help you to review any of these processes in terms of the logical relation between each successive step, the sheer number of steps in the process (too many?), possible ways to combine two steps, and so forth.

Summary Outline

IMPLEMENTING THE BEST ALTERNATIVE

Chapter VI

1. To implement a plan we have to be able to identify, organize and manage the people, resources, systems and contingencies that are essential to its success.

2. To select the right people for a project, we should check on their interest, knowledge, skill and time in relation to the requirements of the project.

3. Make sure that the persons assigned to carry out a project have the necessary authority to do so.

4. Come to an agreement on the decision making process for the project.

5. Use "Brainstorming" to identify the resources, that is, the equipment, supplies and facilities required for a project; then use "Brainstorming" again to identify ways of securing what is needed. Start by assuming that what is needed is available free, and go on from there. (See the Resource Packet on "Resources.")

6. Use graphic systems to chart the flow of a process, and to establish deadlines for component parts of the process.

7. Use "Brainstorming" to develop a list of barriers to the success of a project, then develop contingency plans to cope with these barriers.

8. If the project requires staff to do something new, or do something "old" but in a new way, develop a plan to provide them with the necessary training.

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CHAPTER
VI-A

INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA AND TEACHING PROCEDURES

		Example	Advantages	Limitations
1	Verbal Symbols	Reading: books, programmed instruction, handouts, checklists, etc.	Portable, multiple copies easily available, efficiently contain lots of information	Words are open to misinterpretation; reading training materials may be boring; passive learning that allows no practice (not always true for programmed instruction)
2	Visual Symbols	Diagrams, charts, graphs, posters, etc.	Often retain what we see better than what we hear; focuses learner's attention	May require explanation, because symbols often summarize; may give distorted picture regarding specifics
3	Lectures or Recordings	Audio-cassette tapes, LP records, etc.	Lecture can summarize new knowledge; lecturer can respond to questions (book can't); audio-tape easily copied so that lecturer does not have to be present	Audio-tape alone may not hold trainee's interest; lecture is such a common way of teaching that it may not be anticipated as interesting; lecturer may know subject yet be a poor showman
4	Still Pictures	Photographs, drawings, etc.	Focuses attention; inexpensive illustration	Finding the "right" pictures may be hard
5	Motion Pictures	Commercial films, educational TV, etc.	Focuses attention; graphically portrays through sight and sound; slow motion, stop-action can be very effective when taking a subject apart to teach "pieces" of it	Inflexible; hard to find relevant films; expensive and often difficult to acquire just when you want it; must be previewed before using
6	Exhibits	Samples, models, etc.	Concrete representations of things that might otherwise be intangible; allows for thoughtful study and manipulation	May be hard to find good, up-to-date materials; may have no relevance for what you want to teach

7	Field Trips	Visits to cooperating agencies, etc.	Makes real what has been read or talked about; side benefit could be increased cohesiveness among trainees from traveling together	May present superificial or unrealistic picture; may focus on meeting organization's "brass" but not getting a feel for process; can be very time-consuming; presence of observers may disrupt the very process that is to be observed
8	Demonstration	Role playing by an expert, etc.	Makes process fully visible; trainee can find out from model why he did what he did when he did it; model can describe his own experiences learning how to do what he has just demonstrated	Model may be too good, or too different from trainee to be an acceptable (to them) model; model may do well without being able to teach others how to do well; takes time, i.e., modeling with no practice is not too effective
9	Dramatized Experiences	Plays, puppets, role playing that involves trainees as participants, video-taping of trainees in action,etc.	Entire process re-created, but safely, with no real consequences to people or things; trainee experiences something like the real performance situation	Finding skillful performers who are good enough to make performance appear real may be difficult
10	Simulated Experiences	Simulation games, role playing trainees with actors, etc.	Allows trainee to experience the performance situation directly with no real consequences to people or things; allows for multiple practice and feedback	Simulated reality may be threatening to many, particularly if they think superiors are evaluating them, i.e., "I'm really good at this, but I blow it when you're all watching"; some people resent playing make-believe
11	Direct Experience	An on-the-job internship, practice, etc.	The real thing, a chance to try self out where consequences do affect people and things - no make-believe	Trainee may not be ready for full responsibility; too many factors to control, which can impede the trainee's ability to concentrate on specific aspects of whatever is to be learned

1. Write down the major steps in LODI.

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

TRAINING PROCEDURES THAT COULD BE USED IN A DRIVER TRAINING PROGRAM:

All trainees might be required to first read (#1 - Verbal Symbols) the typical manual of state driving regulations (more efficient than lecture and probably more effective in that the trainee can read a passage several times if it's not clear). Next, a film might be shown (#5 - Motion Pictures) of typical driving problems, with a chance for questions and discussion. Third, if a driving simulator is available (#10 - Continued Experience) trainees could be told to sign up for it, at their convenience, and finally, several trainees could take turns practicing driving (#11 - Direct Experience) in a driver-education car in traffic, with an instructor present in the car.

Objective #1

Persons who are responsible for training others will be able to identify correctly the meaning and function of all of the symbols on a flow chart of a training project.

Objective #2

Every counselor will be able to complete particular agency forms that will meet the standards of inclusiveness, conciseness and specificity set forth on the form.

Objective #3

All clerical personnel will be able to "trouble-shoot" the new office copier so that clear copies can be made; in addition, they will be able to determine when a sales representative should be called, rather than attempting to fix the copier themselves.

Answers to Exercise I

Examples for each of the Principles of Training, in relation to the driver-education program:

Keep It Interesting

Example: for the non-driver, the eventual reward of a driver's license provides the basic motivation. A creative trainer could make driving lessons more interesting in several ways: direct the students through a scenic route at one time, and through particularly heavy traffic at another; make teaching points through the use of humor; ask the other students to offer constructive feedback to the student behind the wheel; require students to select the safest route for getting from point A to point B, etc. Remember, too, that it's not "interesting" to fail repeatedly when practicing a new skill. It helps to make initial practice attempts fairly easy, to give hints at first, etc., so that the trainee gains confidence concerning the new skill. Gaining confidence is rewarding, and rewarding situations are usually interesting.

The goal - getting a driver's license - provides the trainee's motivation if the student sees that the various steps in the training are clearly useful to achieving the goal. If the step doesn't seem directly relevant to the goal: 1) re-evaluate the step: is it really necessary? 2) If it is, explain how it relates to the goal.

Take It Apart

Example: Traffic laws and rules of the road should be attended to, apart from operation of the vehicle. When teaching operation of the vehicle, it might be wise to first explain the location and use of each part of the car involved in driving. Separate attention might also be given to specific aspects of moving the vehicle, e.g., starting the car, parking the car, etc.

Step-By-Step

Description: describing what is to be learned, in what order, and how it is to be learned, would be a good start. In addition, any demonstration should be preceded by a description of what is about to occur; where possible, this description could continue as an accompaniment to the demonstration.

Demonstration: The demonstration could also move by stages, e.g., showing how the turn signals work while the car is standing still, then while the car is moving, etc.

Practice: Wherever possible, the trainee should be given an opportunity to practice what he has learned, although initially it would be wise not to put too many pressures on him at once, e.g., don't have him drive in heavy traffic the first time he takes the wheel.

Feedback: A trainee could learn a great deal about the quality of his driving simply by moving a car from one place to another. It would be more helpful, however, to be told by the driving instructor how well he or she had driven. A comment like, "That was pretty good," from the instructor is less useful, however, than comments pertaining to specific aspects of driving, such as "You handled turning quite well, passing the wheel from hand to hand as I showed you, but you didn't slow down far enough in advance of turns and as a result your turning wasn't smooth. Why don't we work on that some more?" Obviously, the trainer who wants to provide helpful feedback will be able to do so if he first has a clear idea of what a good performance is, and what aspect of the total performance is being worked on. Otherwise, he ends up with a weak (and almost useless) comment like, "That was pretty good."

Change the Learning Situation: In conclusion, once the trainee shows good knowledge of driving rules, and can handle the vehicle well, practice in difficult circumstances such as night driving, driving in heavy traffic, driving in a downpour, etc., would be helpful.

Selecting Instructional Media and Teaching Methods

To Achieve Objective #1:

Trainees would be given a programmed instruction booklet including a chart of flow chart symbols, with the meaning and function of each spelled out. The program would include samples of numerous flow charts in which the reader would be asked to identify the symbols used and describe the meaning of the chart, then allowed to compare his responses with the correct responses.

To Achieve Objective #2:

Provide all trainees with blank copies of the agency forms with accompanying written instructions (Verbal Symbols): discuss; provide all trainees with a copy of one or more forms, correctly filled out; and have a person fill one out in front of the group (Demonstration). Have each trainee complete the form, compare and discuss (Simulated Experience). In one week, reassemble the group, compare and discuss use of the form on the job (Direct Experience).

To Achieve Objective #3:

Distribute copies of the training manual (Verbal Symbols) with pictures of copiers (Still Pictures); have a "trouble shooting" demonstration (Demonstration) by the sales representative; practice (Continued Experience) on the copier that has been "fixed" by the instructor to present operating problems.

Summary Outline

TRAINING

Chapter VI-A

1. Use training when a project requires staff to do something new, or to do something "old" but in a new way.

2. The steps in a training process are: negotiate a contract; identify needs; translate needs into goals; determine what will be taught and how, then develop a system to manage the process; finally, evaluate goal achievement.

3. When training, start with an example that is familiar to trainees, but not controversial.

4. There are at least four principles to good training: aim for realism; get the attention of the trainee; take it apart and teach it a piece at a time, but eventually have the trainee put it all together; and teach in a logical, step by step fashion.

5. When selecting training procedures: use as few as possible; move from the symbolic (something that represents what is to be learned, such as a set of written instructions) to the direct experience.

LODI
PARTICIPANT'S
WORKBOOK

CHAPTER
VII

BASELINE TABLE

MONTH	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN
VETERAN APPLICANTS	60	50	54	64	30	40
VETERAN PLACEMENTS	41	34	30	46	20	24
PERCENTAGE	68%	68%	55%	71%	66%	60%

TOTAL PLACEMENT ÷ TOTAL APPLICANTS = AVERAGE BASELINE

$195 \div 298 = 298\overline{)195} = .65$ or 65%

BASELINE	PROJECT GROUP	
65%	85%	20% INCREASE

BASELINE	COMPARISON GROUP	
65%	65%	NO CHANGE

PROJECT GROUP	COMPARISON GROUP	
85%	65%	20% DIFFERENCE

BASELINE TABLE	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN
VETERAN APPLICANTS	60	50	54	64	30	40
VETERAN PLACEMENTS	41	34	30	46	20	24
PERCENTAGE	68%	68%	55%	71%	66%	60%

PROJECT TABLE	JUL	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC
VETERAN APPLICANTS	58	60	62	54	56	62
VETERAN PLACEMENTS	40	50	54	48	50	54
PERCENTAGE	68%	83%	87%	88%	89%	87%

RECORDING FORM

Group A

Table 1
(Diagram I)

Number Correct	Estimate	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Table 2
(Diagram II)

Number Correct	Estimate	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Table 3
(Summary)

	Diagram I	Diagram II
Time Elapsed		
Estimated Mean		
Actual Mean		

Group B

Table 1
(Diagram I)

Number Correct	Estimate	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Table 2
(Diagram II)

Number Correct	Estimate	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Table 3
(Summary)

	Diagram I	Diagram II
Time Elapsed		
Estimated Mean		
Actual Mean		

SUMMARY

Method	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages	Guidelines for Use
Comparing Objectives to Results.	Simply comparing the project's results to the objectives of the project.	Simple; Little time required; Inexpensive.	Does not "control" for other factors; does not answer what caused the results.	When you only need a "yes" or "no" answer for evaluation.
Comparing Time Intervals	Gives you a "before and after" comparison of the project results by gathering data before and after the project's implementation, at equal time periods.	Simple; Not expensive.	Requires extended evaluation time to be valid. Does not control for other factors. Does not answer what caused the results? Requires keeping accurate records over time.	When a more valid method is needed and data can be gathered over time for comparison.
Comparison Group	Compares a "project group" and a "comparison group" selected by "random assignment."	High validity; controls for other factors; answers: "what caused the results?"	Not a simple method. Requires large group for random assignment.	When a high validity of results is required; when you want to insure it was only the project implementation that caused the results.

Practical Uses of Evaluation

Evaluation procedures have numerous uses outside of a group-related problem-solving process. For examples:

- a staff member had consistently forgotten to inform the agency's secretary whenever he left the office. As a result, she was unable to tell people where he was or when he'd return. The staff member decided to cure himself of this habit: he made up a chart on which he kept a record, each time, of the days and exact times he notified his scretary that he was leaving the office. Each week he had a record of his "progress." By the end of the third week, he had stopped forgetting to notify the secretary when he left the office.
- the Director of a manpower program in a large city thought that he might be spending too much money driving his personal car to work, then using it to get to meetings away from the office. To test this, he set up the following experiment. For two weeks, he kept a precise record of his mileage and parking costs. In the following two weeks, he used the bus to get to work, and used the bus or taxis to get to meetings. At the end of this second two week period he compared his car costs with his bus and taxi costs. In addition, he took a number of intangible factors such as the ease of using his own car vs. the number of agency reports or local newspaper items of importance to his agency that he could read while on the bus. Based on all of these measures, he was able to decide whether or not to continue using his car to get to work.

Summary Outline

EVALUATION

Chapter VII

1. Evaluate when you want to determine the effectiveness of a project in achieving its objectives.

2. Don't evaluate when the project is very small, or the cost of evaluation is excessive, compared to the cost of the project.

3. Comparing Results to Objectives:

   a. Compare the objectives of the project to the actual outcomes.

   b. Use this method when the project is simple and no in depth evaluation is required.

   c. Advantages: This method is simple, inexpensive and requires little time.

   d. Disdavantages: This method of evaluation provides:

      i. No feedback on the significance of the objective.

      ii. No control over other factors that might influence the outcomes.

      iii. No comparison to another approach to the problem, e.g., doing nothing at all.

4. Time-Interval Method:

   a. In this method, specific data are recorded at the same intervals (e.g., a week, every two weeks, each month) for a period before and after the project: the before-and-after-the-implementation data are compared.

b. Advantages - This method:

   i. Is simple and inexpensive.

   ii. Will provide data on the significance of the objective.

c. Disadvantages - This method:

   i. Does not provide for other factors which might influence the outcomes.

   ii. Takes time to complete.

   iii. Requires that accurate records be kept of the evaluation data.

5. Group Comparison Method:

   a. This method of evaluation is a combination method which requires four steps:

      i. Select the Objective/Result or Time Interval as the basic form of evaluation.

      ii. Randomly assign people to the project group and comparison group. (See the Resource Packet on Random Assignment).

      iii. Implement the project.

      iv. Compare the outcomes of the two groups.

   b. Advantages:

      i. This method provides the greatest validity for evaluation.

      ii. It also accounts for other factors which might affect the outcome.

   c. Disadvantages:

      i. The disadvantages of this approach are that it is more complex, requires time, and requires enough people to form two groups.

LODI
PARTICIPANT'S
WORKBOOK

CHAPTER
VIII

Workbook Summary

REASSESSMENT

Chapter VIII

Reassessment should be continued throughout the problem-solving process. It is a continual questioning process which can affect your efforts as an individual or as a work group by providing continual feedback. Reassessment is best done by asking a series of questions.

1. Has the need changed?
2. Is the need still important enough to invest the effort required for its fulfillment?
3. Is the goal statement still pertinent or should the target, outcome or criterion be re-evaluated?
4. Were sufficient resources allocated to the implementation of the project to provide for successful completion?
5. Were actual costs of the program's implementation in line with our cost estimates?
6. Should adjustments be made in the project's management?
7. Did anybody resist or subvert the change effort? If so, how can that be prevented from occurring in the future?
8. Is the project still working and relevant to current needs?
9. What is the relative advantage of the project after continued operations?
10. Are there any side effects (good or bad) of the project which should be resolved?

11. Has a better alternative solution evolved since the project implementation?

12. How do you intend to integrate the skills learned in this workshop into your everyday job tasks and into problem solving by your agency?

13. How should the project be adjusted so that it becomes a regular part of this agency's operations?

One LODI Project - An Illustration

This is a description of a project undertaken by the staff members of a manpower agency that participated in a field test of the LODI Workshop materials. It is included as an illustration of what can happen when such a project is undertaken, rather than a model of what should happen. In other words it is meant to be illustrative rather than exemplary since it focuses on both success and failure.

Using the needs assessment techniques taught during early sessions of the Workshop (Brainstorming and Delphi) the group determined "improving our office facilities" as its highest priority need. Factors such as the lack of a sufficient number of desks for staff members, inadequate space or chairs for waiting clients so that they had to queue up in the hall, and no place to conduct staff meetings were among the conditions that led staff to select this need. The group used the techniques of translating this vague need statement ("improving our office facilities") into specific goal statements as follows:

a. The current square footage of the office space should be increased 100%.

b. One room should be set aside as a staff lounge, and a refrigerator should be installed in that room;

c. 80 square feet of office should be designated as a waiting area for clients, and equipped with 20 comfortable chairs, current magazines, newspapers and relevant agency hand-outs, and toys and a toy box for children of waiting clients;

d. A drinking fountain should be installed that is accessible to clients and staff members.

In attempting to achieve these goals, it was determined that the County Board of Supervisors had the power to provide the additional space and some of the equipment. The Office Manager agreed to present the staff group's request to the Board. In addition, one staff member offered to donate a small refrigerator that had been standing un-used in his garage. A second staff member offered use of his panel truck to transport the refrigerator to the office when space for the proposed staff lounge became available. Several staff members indicated that the idea of securing a refrigerator as a place for storing refreshments or lunches was something that had occurred to them, but that they had been so busy as individuals that they had never had the occasion to raise the idea with others, particularly as there was no available space in which to install it.

Brainstorming was used to develop alternative ways of securing the chairs, toys and toy box, current magazine and drinking fountain. One staff member agreed to determine costs for purchase and installation of a water fountain.

The Office Manager was successful in securing the needed office space from space immediately adjacent to their work site, thus effectively doubling the size of their office. This made it possible to designate an area that had been used for storage as a staff lounge. Twenty used but servicable chairs were secured from the basement of the County Court House and placed in the waiting room. As furniture was shifted to capitalize on the new-found space, the refrigerator was transported to the office and installed in the new staff lounge.

As this process had been unfolding, the group had continued to meet and make use of the LODI Workshop materials. Unfortunately, with the critical need for space resolved in terms of the goals they had set for themselves, they took no further action in relation to the goals relating to equipment needs, i.e., magazines in the waiting area, toys for children of waiting clients, and installation of a water fountain because of the press of the agency business. The group simply decided that these items were no longer seen as a priority need. In retrospect, one might say that the truly critical need was space in which to get the job done, and the other goals represented "nice but not necessary" objectives.

On the other hand, staff had agreed that these goals were tangible items to be achieved in relation to the original need of "improving our office facilities" and it would have enhanced the success of the project to achieve all of its goals.

Additionally, it became clear that the chosen goals were insufficient for use as a focus for the LODI Workshop since they were achieved fairly quickly, once the staff group had become aware of its own consensus on high priority needs. (This heightened awareness was a direct result of participation in the LODI Workshop, and was cited by staff members as one of the chief benefits they had gained from participating in LODI.) The experience of this group suggested that staff groups should reflect goals that are neither quickly achievable nor require months to achieve when selecting a LODI project, so that there can be a fairly close match between the techniques being covered in LODI, and their application to a project that is designed to meet a real agency need. The nature of this project and the way the group chose to pursue did not provide an opportunity to practice the use of techniques covered in the chapters on "relative evaluation," "implementation," "training," (an optional chapter), or "evaluation."

Subsequently, portions of the LODI materials were revised to suggest that Workshop groups select a project that looks as if it will entail a medium, rather than short or long-range time frame, so that all of the chapters of LODI could be made relevant to one project.

LOCAL OFFICE DECISION-MAKING AND IMPLEMENTATION

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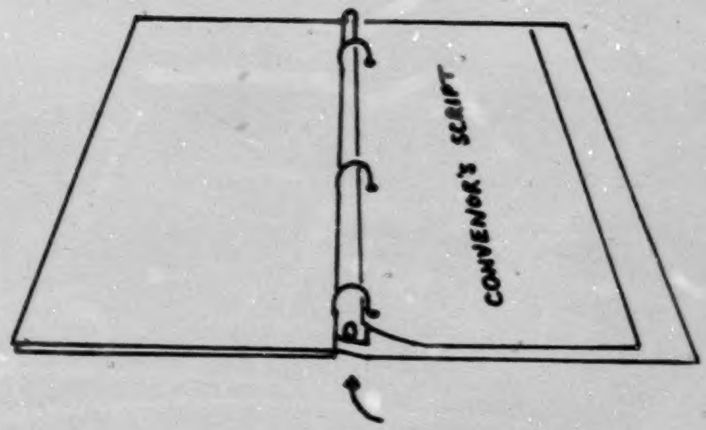
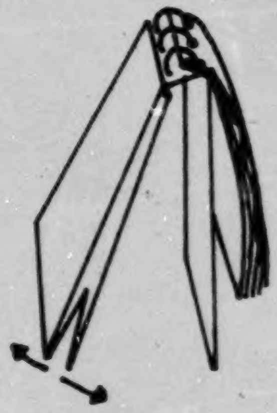
USING THE A-FRAME BINDER

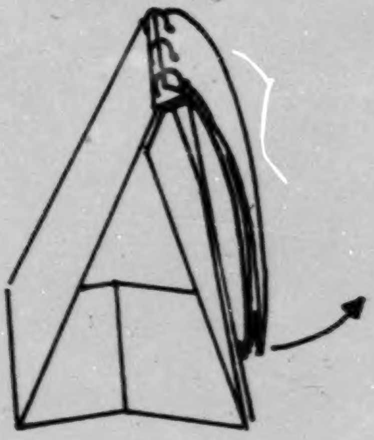
①
Open the A-Frame Binder flat, and place Chapter I in it as you would with any 3-ring binder.



②
Lift the A-Frame Binder by placing your hand beneath the center spine (under the rings).



③
Spread apart the two arms of the front cover so the pieces connecting them lie flat on the table, and the Convenor's script is facing the Convenor.



CHAPTER I

THE WORKING AGREEMENT

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER I

THE WORKING AGREEMENT

CHAPTER I

THE WORKING AGREEMENT

LODI

PLANNING & MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

RULES FOR THEIR USE

PRACTICE IN USING TECHNIQUES

A WORKSHOP PROJECT

INTRODUCTION: This Workshop includes descriptions of planning and management techniques, rules for their use, and exercises that provide an opportunity to practice these techniques. In addition, we will plan and carry out one project directed at improving some aspect of our work which interests us.

As a result of going through this Workshop, we should be better able to solve the kinds of short and long range problems we face in our individual jobs and as an organization.

Before going on, though, it's important to find out if everyone has had a chance to read "An Introduction to Local Office Decision-Making and Implementation" that describes the Workshop. If there are some people who haven't read it, they may not have much of an idea of what this Workshop is all about or how it will operate.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Pause here to make sure everyone has read the introduction to LODI. If they have, move on - if not, arrange for those who haven't to see it now. If the group raises any questions about the introduction, use your judgement: answer only those questions not covered in this first chapter, assuring them that most of their questions will be answered in the chapter. (Obviously, you will have discovered the contents of the chapter when you rehearsed it, prior to the Workshop session).*

A WORKING AGREEMENT

OR

"CONTRACT"

AGREEMENT OR "CONTRACT": Before learning the other techniques and procedures taught in the Workshop, we need to work out an agreement, or "contract", on some basic ground rules for the operation of this group. Such a contract is a useful technique for beginning any new process, committee, or planning task. This session will help us to negotiate such a contract by directing us through the following process:

1. DEMONSTRATION PROBLEM
2. DISCUSSION GUIDELINES
3. DECISIONS ABOUT THIS LODI GROUP
4. REVIEW

OUTLINE OF THIS CHAPTER:

First, a demonstration exercise will be presented calling for a mix of individual and group effort. This demonstration is actually not part of contract negotiation, but is good preparation for it. As part of the demonstration, guidelines for group discussion will be presented that should help us in working out the demonstration exercise, and in negotiating our contract as well;

Second, specific decisions will be identified that should be made about the operation of this group;

Third, and last, we'll decide whether or not we are sufficiently committed to the content and style of this workshop to give it the time and effort needed to make it work.

OBJECTIVES

REACH A WORKING AGREEMENT

BE ABLE TO REACH SIMILIAR AGREEMENTS IN THE FUTURE

OBJECTIVES: By the end of the session, if we decide to complete the Workshop, we will have reached a working agreement or contract for this group workshop, and we will be able to work out similar contracts in the future, for use in other planning and problem-solving activities.

LOST
ON
THE
MOON

A SURVIVAL PROBLEM

PRACTICE PROBLEM: The problem we're about to work on deals with survival on the moon. Now that may not sound relevant to the needs of this group. However, this problem was pruposely chosen to demonstrate the differences between planning by individuals and by a group. Selecting "survival on the moon" as the subject of the problem makes it likely that we will all be about equal in the amount of knowledge, or lack of knowledge that we bring to the problem. If we picked a work related problem with which we're familiar and about which we may already have strong opinions, it would interfere with our ability to pay attention to the process we use in solving problems.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Make sure that the group understands the reasons for using this exercise. If necessary, point out that in this exercise everyone, regardless of position or schooling, starts out about equal so that the process of individual v. group problem solving gets a fair test. Also, like many work problems, no one knows all the answers. Finally, remind them, if necessary, that using this topic allows them to avoid some of the old arguments that may have bogged the staff down in the past.*

STEP ONE: Each of us is to first work on the problem by himself. Then we'll work on it as a group, with special attention to effective group discussion procedures.

Here is the problem. Assume that we are on a spaceship that has just crash-landed on the lighted surface of the moon. We were scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship located 200 miles away on the lighted surface, but the rough landing has ruined our ship and destroyed all of the equipment on board, except for 15 items. Our survival depends on reaching the mother ship so we

RANK THE ITEMS

I THROUGH 15

must choose the most critical items necessary for surviving the 200 mile trip. Our task is to rank the 15 items in terms of their importance for survival. You rank the items by placing the number "one" by the most important item, number "two" by the second most important, and so on, through "fifteen", the least important. Each person does this ranking alone.

You'll find the problem restated on page 2, Chapter I of your Workbook, and the 15 items on page 3. It's assumed that you're not space experts, so use your best judgement based on what makes sense to you.

Are there any questions before we begin?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If there are any questions, ask group members to help clear up misunderstandings. The exercise should take about 45 minutes: 10-15 minutes for individual rankings and up to 30 minutes for the group's ranking, to be done after the* individuals' *ranking. When all questions have been answered, tell the group to begin. It's your job to note when they start, and to keep track of time, and to let the group know when they have five minutes left for (first) individual rankings and (later) group rankings.*

DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

1. Avoid bickering
2. Stalemate? Compromise!
3. Don't agree just to avoid conflict
4. Work hard for consensus

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Wait until everyone has completed the exercise, then go on, pausing after each guideline and asking if there are any comments or questions.*

STEP TWO: Now we're supposed to reach agreement as a group about the ranking of the 15 items in terms of their importance for survival. However, this may not be as easy as it seems. Groups that try to solve complex problems often run into problems of poor communication. We should therefore try to follow these 8 discussion guidelines. They'll help us in this discussion, and in all of our discussions during this Workshop.

GUIDELINES FOR DISCUSSION:

1. We should present our positions clearly, but listen as well to what others have to say before pressing our point of view. *(Pause for comments or questions)*

2. If a stalemate is reached, we should not assume that someone must win and someone must lose: instead, we should look for a compromise. *(Pause again, etc.)*

3. We shouldn't agree just to avoid conflicts. If agreement comes too quickly we should be cautious; it's best to make sure that our agreements are based on a position that everyone accepts for similar, logical reasons. *(Pause, etc.)*

4. We should avoid techniques that reduce conflict like "majority rule" or "flipping a coin". Instead, we should work for full agreement by everyone. *(Pause, etc.)*

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Continued.*

DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

5. Bring out disagreements
6. Listen actively
7. Restate individual statements
8. Summarize group discussions

5. Disagreements between people are perfectly natural. We should try to bring disagreements out in the open. This is often a good way to bring out a wide range of information and opinions - the very things needed to arrive at a good solution. *(Pause)*

6. To take maximum advantage of the resources of a group, you must be an active listener; when you're talking, you're not listening. Concentrate on what others are saying. Provide periodic feedback to whoever is talking by nodding your head, saying "uh huh", "yes", etc. *(Pause)*

7. When someone has completed a several-sentence argument or statement of a point of view, you may want to restate briefly what that person has said in order to affirm - for both of you - that you have understood it correctly, for example, "If I heard you correctly..." or "So what you're saying is..." *(Pause)*

8. After discussion has gone on for a while, someone in the group should summarize what has been said to that point, stating the ideas presented as concretely as possible, to make sure that what has been said is clear to all.

Are there any further questions or comments about these points?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Look around the group to see if anyone want to comment, or add any other guidelines. If there is some discussion, don't let it go too long.*

DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

1. AVOID BICKERING
2. STALEMATE? COMPROMISE!
3. DON'T AGREE JUST TO AVOID CONFLICT
4. WORK HARD FOR CONSENSUS
5. BRING OUT DISAGREEMENTS
6. LISTEN ACTIVELY
7. RESTATE INDIVIDUAL STATEMENTS
8. SUMMARIZE GROUP DISCUSSIONS

OK. As we get into our discussion, everyone should feel free to remind the group if and when we forget to follow the guidelines.

Now as a group, let's work out an agreement on the ranking of the 15 items. We should record our decisions in the column marked Group Ranking. However, do not erase your individual ratings, no matter what the group decides.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *At this point, members can compare their lists, and following the guidelines, discuss and reach agreement on the group's ranking on each of the 15 items. When the group finishes:*

Page 4 of your Workbook shows you how to compute and compare your individual and group scores. First, look at the correct answers for this exercise: they were developed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and are on page 5 of your Workbook. To begin, we must have an average of your individual scores. Is everyone clear about how individual scores are computed? (PAUSE - *If there are any questions, ask group members who understand page 4 to explain it to those who don't.*) So let's go around and give our individual scores and I'll write them down. Then I'll figure out the average. While I'm doing that, someone else can compute the group's score.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Add the individual scores and divide by the number of group members to get the average. Tell the group members what the average was so they can write it on page 4 of their Workbook.*

The group's score is ________________________.

The best individual score is _________________.

The average of the individual score is ________.

Group Score

Averaged Individual Score

Best Individual Score

DISCUSSION: If our group worked to the best of its ability then our group score should be better than the average of the individual scores; better even than best individual score. Refer to page 4 of the Workbook again. How did our group do, compared to its individual members?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion before continuing. Be sure that whatever the answer, the "why" is discussed, e.g., "Why wasn't this the case with our group?" or "Why was this the case with our group" or "What did we do that could explain why it worked out this way?"*

DISCUSSION: If the average of the individual scores was better than our group's score it means we didn't work together as a group in solving the problem as well as we worked alone.

If this is the case, we should try to figure out why it happened.

Did anyone have a correct answer and then get "railroaded" by the group into accepting an incorrect group answer?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If it happened, encourage the group to discuss it, with particular attention to the discussion guidelines presented on pages 8 and 9. If it did not happen, congratulate the group and proceed with your reading.*

DISCUSSION: If the best individual score was better than the group score, it means that someone in the group had good information but we didn't use it. Let's figure out why that happens, so that we can avoid missing out in the future.

ARE

BETTER

DISCUSSION

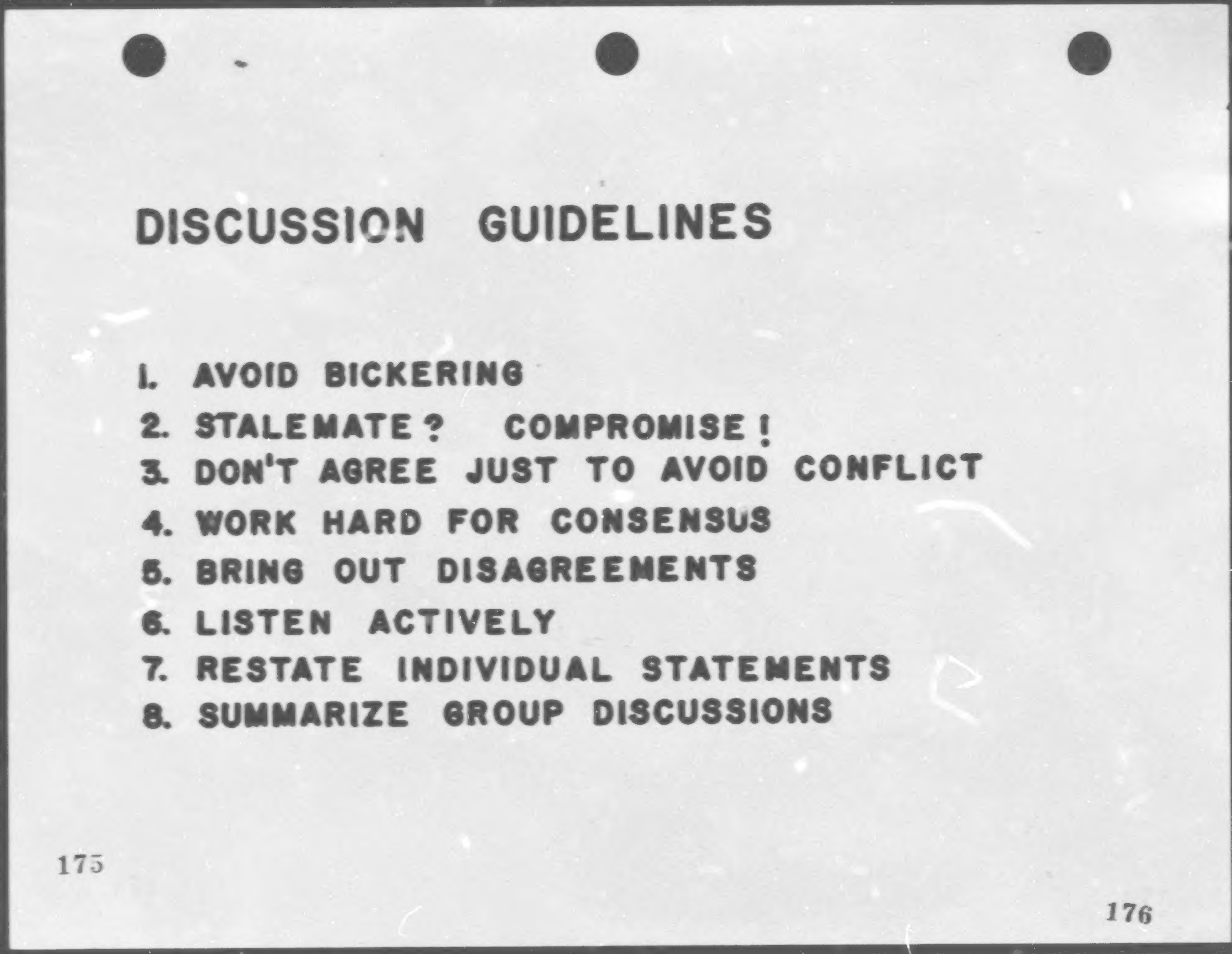
SKILLS

NEEDED

?

If we didn't draw everybody in, or we didn't listen well enough, we may want to do some additional work on improving our group discussion skills. In that case, when we finish this chapter, we could plan to devote time to Chapter I-A, called "Techniques of Group Membership."

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *At some point before this session ends, get your group to decide whether or not it wants to go through Chapter I-A, when it will do it, and who should be the Convenor for it.*



DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

1. AVOID BICKERING
2. STALEMATE? COMPROMISE!
3. DON'T AGREE JUST TO AVOID CONFLICT
4. WORK HARD FOR CONSENSUS
5. BRING OUT DISAGREEMENTS
6. LISTEN ACTIVELY
7. RESTATE INDIVIDUAL STATEMENTS
8. SUMMARIZE GROUP DISCUSSIONS

DECISIONS CONCERNING THIS LODI GROUP:

Solving this problem should have demonstrated that a group often has the ability to solve a complex problem better than an individual can, providing the members work openly on their differences of opinion. Several research studies have shown that groups who use the 8 discussion guidelines get higher scores on this exercise than groups that don't use them. Therefore let's keep the 8 discussion guidelines in mind as we now work out a contract for this group. On pages 6 and 7 of the Workbook you'll find a summary of each Workshop Chapter and some suggested time-frames. Before attempting to reach any decisions about the contract for this group, we should read that material which was also in the introduction to LODI.

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Let people read this material themselves rather than reading it aloud to the group. When everyone is finished, move to the questions listed below. After each question, wait until agreement has been reached and the decision recorded in everyone's Workbook on pages 7 and 8 before asking the next question.

On pages 7 and 8 of the Workbook, a form is provided on which we can each record the decisions we make, so that there is no future confusion about the decisions we make today.

Now let's decide on the following:

MEET WHEN?	When should we meet? *(PAUSE FOR DISCUSSION AND DECISION)*
MEET HOW OFTEN?	How often should we meet? *(PAUSE)*
MEETING LENGTH?	How long should our meetings run? *(PAUSE)*
BEGIN WHEN?	When should we begin? *(PAUSE)*
END WHEN?	Then what's the date of our last session? *(PAUSE)*
MEET WHERE?	Where will we meet? *(PAUSE)*

THE CONVENOR ROLE

CONVENOR ROLE: Next, let's talk about the Convenor role.

This Workshop teaches a process in which responsibility for planning and implementing is shared by staff. For this reason, it is highly desirable that each of us have a turn serving as Convenor so that we each have the experience of running a problem solving meeting. It's not difficult to be a Convenor in this Workshop - a lot of the convening job is spelled out for you right here, where I'm reading now, much as it is for people on TV when they're reading cue cards. However, you must prepare a day or two ahead of time. Field tests of this Workshop showed clearly that when the Convenor prepared in advance, the groups were far more productive and satisfying than those in which Convenors came in cold, without preparation. The Convenor must prepare because not everything the Convenor must say or do is written to be read aloud. In addition, the Convenor will want to put some things in his or her own words, for even where the script is written out, the Convenor is free to alter words or phrases in the script to fit his or her own style. You may also discover, when you prepare, that some points are not clear on first reading: you are encouraged to ask the group members to help figure it out. Finally, following a script can be interesting or boring, depending on how familiar you are with the script, your pacing, your tone of voice. If you're prepared, and interested in the material, you'll be better able to make it interesting and useful to the group. As Convenor, you're also responsible for making

OUTSIDE WORK

room arrangements, reminding people about the LODI meeting, arriving a bit early to make sure the room is ready, and so forth. It's probably hard to select the session that will be best for you but do the best you can. A good idea is to pick the session that interests you most. Occasionally there are people who simply do not want to be Convenor. No one will be forced, but if it's just the natural kind of stage fright we all experience, you are strongly encouraged to give it a try. And decisions made today can be changed in the future through group negotiation, which would change the "contract" we're in the process of working out. So let's decide now who will be the Convenor for each session, and record it in the Workbooks.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Don't proceed until every session has an assigned Convenor and as many people as possible have agreed to be a Convenor at least once. If the group is large, suggest that people pair up as Co-Convenors.*

LODI WORK OUTSIDE OF LODI MEETINGS: Next, there's work which must be accomplished outside of the Workshop meetings. As part of the Workshop, we will be doing a group project, in order to actually apply the techniques and procedures described in the Workshop. Sometimes, this will require work done between sessions. As with the Convenor's role, this outside work should be spread around among group members. The outside work that must be done is shown in the Workbook on pages 7 and 8.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group decide who will perform each of the tasks. Then:*

STAFF INVOLVEMENT ?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *The next paragraph concerning other staff is to be used only if there are staff members in this agency who are not members of this LODI group.*

STAFF PARTICIPATION: Next is participation of other staff in the Workshop. In doing the LODI project, we will be asking for the participation of others in the organization who aren't in this group. We should involve everyone who is likely to be affected by the project, including secretaries, administrators, maintenance staff, line staff, and the enrollees (or clients) working in the office, if any. For example, later on the LODI materials propose that we gather opinions about needs of our office from a wide range of people in the office. After that, we will have to decide who must be involved in the selection and implementation of the project we decide to work on. We can decide who to handle this when we come to it.

OTHER CONTRACT ITEMS: Finally, it's important that we be clear on the roles we are each to play in this process, and the operating procedures we're going to follow, before we finish this session. So far, we've decided on the number of sessions, the time and place of meetings, when we begin and end, who will convene each session, and who will carry out what arrangements. Now, are there any other decisions about roles or operating procedures that we should make?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If group doesn't bring it up, you might say something like: "You may remember that we were to decide whether or not we were sufficiently interested in the content and style of this Workshop to give it the time and effort it will take to make it work. Now that we know, at least in a beginning way, what will be involved, we need to decide if we still want to go ahead". Make sure this decision is addressed and made, one way or another. If one or two decide to drop out at this point, but the majority decide to proceed, you will need to decide about the recruitment of replacements.*

REVIEW

Let's review what's been said in this session. Feel free to raise any questions about the items that are of concern to you.

1. The "Lost on the Moon" exercise was used to show that groups can be more effective than individuals in solving complex problems.

2. The more willing members are to state disagreements openly and work them out until consensus is reached, the more effective and satisfying the group is likely to be in solving a problem.

3. A Group works best when its members can work out a mutually acceptable agreement, or contract, that clearly defines the groundrules for the group, so that everyone knows what to expect from each other.

There is one essential component of a contract that we haven't discussed very much, and that's goals, the purpose of working together. We'll get into that in the next two chapters on "Determining Office Needs" and "Turning Needs Into Goals".

What's essential at this point is to recognize the importance of working together openly, discussing our differences as they come up, recording decisions as we make them, with each person taking a share of the responsibility for making the group work. In concluding, we should take a few minutes to talk about uses of contracts elsewhere in the organization whether its with an individual or a group. Where have contracts been used? Where else might they be used?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to discuss these questions. You'll find some suggestions on pages 9 and 10 of the Workbook. Then, if the group has decided to continue with the LODI Workshop, end this session by reminding them of the time and place for the next meeting, and the person who is to be Convenor for that meeting.*

CHAPTER I-A

TECHNIQUES OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER I-A
(optional)

TECHNIQUES OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP

CHAPTER I-A

TECHNIQUES OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP

LEADERSHIP ACT:

anything members do to help a group move closer to its goals.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *In this chapter, you will be helping the group participate in an exercise designed to teach specific techniques of group leadership and group membership. The presentation of the techniques themselves is in the Workbook. The session proceeds in four stages:*

1. *Explanation of the exercise;*
2. *Time for the participants to read about a technique and to raise questions about the material they've read;*
3. *Participation by the group in the "group techniques" exercise;*
4. *Discussion of the exercise and its implications for the interaction within the LODI group.*

INTRODUCTION: Anything members do to help a group move closer to its goals is a leadership act, whether it's giving information, asking for the opinion of others or praising a suggestion. In this sense, members of a group are just as likely to perform leadership acts as the group's formal leader. When members perform leadership acts, they're called "techniques of group membership."

If a group is to be both effective in achieving its goals and satisfying to its members, it's leader and its members must share responsibility for performing these leadership acts.

OBJECTIVES:

- Recognize leadership acts
- Each person perform at least one technique

OBJECTIVES: By the end of this chapter, we should all be able to:

1. Recognize when a participant in a group has performed any of the 10 leadership acts described in the Workbook, and
2. Perform at least one of the 10 leadership acts acceptably well in our LODI group.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Leadership acts: techniques of group membership

THE "GROUP LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUES" EXERCISE:

To practice the use of these techniques, we'll have a discussion in which each of you will be assigned to use one of the techniques described in Chapter I-A of the Workbook. For example, if you are assigned "Mediating" it will be your special responsibility to mediate disagreements that may arise among us during the discussion, if and when necessaru.

At the same time, each of us can participate in the discussion as we normally do. In other words, you are to use your assigned technique whenever it is appropriate to do so in addition to acting according to your usual style of participation.

Practice Through Discussion

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Find out if this is clear: don't proceed until everyone understands. Then, using any system you think will work in the group, assign one technique to each participant, including yourself, and assign a time limit, e.g., 20 minutes, to the discussion. For example, you might go around the group, starting with the person on your left, assigning the numbers 1 through 10. This would assign each member to the technique with the corresponding number, e.g., 1, "Attending." If there are less than ten participants, you can omit some of the techniques. Each participant should be assigned one, and only one technique. If you must omit techniques, you can use the following criteria: If your group is having difficulty managing conflict, don't drop "Gatekeeping" "Confrontation" or "Mediating"; if the members have had little experience working together as a group, don't drop "Attending" "Information Seeking" "Information Giving" "Focusing" and "Summarizing". Or, each member could individually select a technique (such as "Rewarding") that has proven difficult for him or her in the past, or about which he or she would like to learn more. In this case, the techniques no one selects would be omitted. If one or more techniques are omitted because of group size, do not overlook it entirely. One way to cover all the techniques is to arbitrarily stop the discussion after a certain period of time (e.g., 10 minutes) and assign new techniques to each person: when you continue, the techniques omitted at first can be assigned and used during a second discussion period of perhaps 10 minutes.*

Select a topic

The discussion topic can be selected by you or by the group, but it's best not to devote much time to selecting it. A work-related topic may lure people into their usual mode of interaction, causing them to forget to use their technique, so it might be best to select a topic that is not work-related. You could also choose from one of the following topics:

1. What would you do if you suddenly inherited money and became a millionaire?
2. Should the government give its highest priority to eradicating poverty, launching space shots, or finding a cure for cancer?
3. What is the most serious problem in our community?

Participate in the discussion

and

use the technique assigned

to you

NOTE TO CONVENOR: Assuming that each participant's assignment, time limit, and the group's topic is now known to the group, ask if there are any questions about the technique each person is to specialize in during the discussion.

Allow time for questions. If member A thinks the "Mediating" should be used, and thinks that member C (who was assigned "Mediating") isn't using the technique when it should be used, member A could use it even though it's not his or her special assignment. Once the roles of the exercise are clear, proceed to the discussion.

discuss
and
review

EXERCISE: (Con'd)

Okay - Everyone know their assignment? Clear on the topic? Know the time limit? Then who wants to get us started?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

At the end of the time limit, stop the discussion.

DISCUSSING THE EXERCISE:

Let's go around the group and ask each person what he or she learned about his or her technique. As each person reports, the rest of us should feel free to report how we experienced that person's use of the technique, always beginning with what we thought went well, and then suggesting any improvements the person might have made when using the technique.

OTHER USES OF THE TECHNIQUES?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *This review of the exercise is called "processing the experience" and is perhaps the most important step in the exercise. Encourage supportive comments from member to member; ask them to discuss what they found most difficult, and encourage members to relate their experience in this exercise to the group's experience during Chapter I. When all have had their say on all of the techniques, ask:*

USING THE TECHNIQUES: Before we end this discussion, let's think of other uses of any of these techniques outside of this LODI workshop group.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Encourage participants to discuss the use of these techniques in such places as intake or counseling interviews, settling disagreements between staff, contacting potential resource persons outside of your program, etc. Conclude the session by making sure that plans for Chapter II, "Determining Needs" are known to everyone.*

CHAPTER II

DETERMINING NEEDS

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER II

DETERMINING OFFICE NEEDS

CHAPTER II

DETERMINING NEEDS

WHAT NEEDS TO BE CHANGED ?

INTRODUCTION: This Workshop is designed to teach us a systematic way of achieving planned program change in our agency by proceeding in a logical, step-by-step fasion. To accomplish change in a a planned way, we have to be able to answer these questions:

Where are we now?

Where do we want to go?

How do we get there?

This session of the Workshop is directed at techniques for answering the question, "Where are we now?" Another way of saying this is, "What needs to be changed to improve our current situation?"

OBJECTIVES

1. CONDUCT A "BRAINSTORMING" SESSION
2. DETERMINE SOME IMPORTANT NEEDS
3. RANK THEIR IMPORTANCE
4. SELECT A NEED TO WORK ON

OBJECTIVES: When we have completed this two-part session, we'll be able to do four things:

1. Conduct a group "Brainstorming" session in order to
2. Identify some of the important needs of our program,
3. Rank these needs in terms of their importance to us, and
4. Select a need to work on as our workshop project.

By the way, has anyone been involved in "Brainstorming" before?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If someone has been involved in "Brainstorming" ask him or her to tell the group how it worked. If the person had a bad experience with it, ask him or her to describe what went wrong so that the Workshop group can avoid the problem(s). If no one has done "Brainstorming" go to the next page.*

Rules for "Brainstorming"

1. Freewheeling is required
2. No criticism is allowed
3. Display the ideas
4. Combining and improving ideas is encouraged
5. Quantity of ideas is the goal

"BRAINSTORMING" TECHNIQUE:

"Brainstorming" is a technique which we'll be using at several points in the Workshop, so it's important that we learn how to do it well. The main purpose of "Brainstorming" is to create as many novel ideas as possible about some topic or problem.

RULES FOR "BRAINSTORMING":

There are some basic rules for "Brainstorming".

First, a freewheeling exchange of ideas is required.

Everyone in the group should state ideas that come to mind about the topic or problem, no matter how wild or inappropriate these ideas may sound at the time. Any idea could be the key that opens up a new idea for someone else.

Second, no criticism of ideas is allowed.

To insure maximum creativity in our group, everyone has to feel free to state any idea that comes to mind. So we shouldn't do anything that might make anyone afraid that someone else is going to ridicule, disagree, question someone's motives, or in some other way critize him or her in front of the group.

Third, the ideas should be displayed.

We should use a newsprint pad on a stand, or tape newsprint sheets to the wall to write down the ideas and keep them displayed before the group during the session. The ideas should be written with a thick felt pen, or heavy crayon so that they can be read easily by everyone present. This gives us a record of the ideas presented (because we can save the sheets of newsprint), and helps to spark new ideas.

Rules for "Brainstorming"

1. Freewheeling is required
2. No criticism is allowed
3. Display the ideas
4. Combining and improving ideas is encouraged
5. Quantity of ideas is the goal

RULES FOR "BRAINSTORMING" (Con'd):

Fourth, combining and improving ideas is encouraged.

Anyone can make a connection between ideas that have already been expressed, or add to an idea that's already on the sheet.

And last, we want as many ideas as possible.

We should concentrate our efforts on getting out as many ideas as we can, within a pre-set time limit. If we can get a large number of ideas, the quality ideas will be there. The time limit puts some pressure on us to work hard.

Are there any questions about these rules?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group sufficient time to discuss or clarify all of the rules before continuing.*

Summarize by saying:

Probably the most important rule at this stage is #2, "No criticism". This prohibits not only negative statements, but all forms of disapproval: sighs, groans, facial expressions that say "how could anyone be so dumb", and so forth. Judgement comes later, after all the ideas are collected. At this point, it would only hold us up, and keep us from saying what we really think.

Rules for "Brainstorming"

1. Freewheeling is required
2. No criticism is allowed
3. Display the ideas
4. Combining and improving ideas is encouraged
5. Quantity of ideas is the goal

EXERCISE: Let's first practice the following rules with an exercise before actually "Brainstorming" about our needs. The rules for "Brainstorming" are shown on the Display Page as a reminder.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the newsprint already set up and have a felt marker or heavy crayon. Ask for a volunteer to write down the ideas on the newsprint and to number thim in order. Make sure that you have everything you need before you continue. Try to get someone other than yourself to write the ideas on the newsprint. Feel free to get into the "Brainstorming" yourself. Prepare some "ways-out" ideas in advance to contribute in case people seem to be too inhibited. For this practice exercise, have an object ready that is familiar to everyone such as an ashtray, a pencil, a drinking glass, a styrofoam coffee cup, etc. Hold the object up before the group so they can see it; begin the "Brainstorming" exercise by asking:*

How many different uses can you think of for this object? Let's see if we can come up with at least 25 different uses for the object in 10 minutes. If anyone notices that we are breaking one of the rules of "Brainstorming", he or she should call it to our attention. Ready? Go!

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Keep track of the time and stop the exercise when the time limit is reached. Make sure all suggestions are recorded, even those meant as jokes. Remind the group of a rule if it is broken - especially the rule regarding criticism. If they "run dry" before 10 minutes is up, don't sit in silence but end the "Brainstorming" at that point. If the group reaches 25 or more ideas, congratulate them on their productivity. If the group came up with some truly unique ideas, also congratulate them on that.*

EFFECTIVE "BRAINSTORMING" REQUIRES

A Good Location

Comfortable Clothing

Enough Time

The Right Time

A Time Limit

FOR FUTURE CONSIDERATION:

That exercise was an example of how "Brainstorming" works. But before we get more serious about it, there are three things we should consider: one is the location for a brainstorming session, second is what to wear when "Brainstorming", and the third has to do with time. These are discussed on page 36 of your Workbook. Take time to read that now.

NEEDS:

the difference between

what we want

and

what we have

PART II

BRAINSTORMING NEEDS:

Now let's put the "Brainstorming" technique to practical use to determine the needs of our particular office. But before we begin we should define the term "need" as it's used in this Workshop. A NEED is the difference between what is desired and what is: the greater the difference between the two, the greater the need. For example, if you really have to have a new car - that's the "desire" part - and your bank account is empty - that's the "is" part - your "need" for money to buy a car is strong. But if you have more than enough money and can easily afford to buy that new car, your need for money for a new car is minimal. If you want to place 50 applicants on jobs - that's the "desire" again - but there are no jobs around - that's what "is" - you have a strong need to find jobs for those 50 applicants. But suppose you have twice as many good job slots as applicants, so you have no need of further job slots. In that case, what is your need? (*Pause for answer*). Obviously, your need, under those conditions, would be fore more applicants! DETERMINING NEEDS is the way you answer the question of "Where are we now in relation to where we want to be." Is this definition clear?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Ask for questions from the group at this time or ask them direct questions to insure they understand the definitions. When you are sure everyone understands, continue reading.

In developing our list of needs, we'll follow three steps: first we'll "Brainstorm" to determine what we think the needs are, then we'll cluster the ideas by topic, and finally, we'll determine an order of priority for the needs.

Rules for "Brainstorming"

1. Freewheeling is required
2. No criticism is allowed
3. Display the ideas
4. Combining and improving ideas is encouraged
5. Quantity of ideas is the goal

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Organize the group for a "Brainstorming" session.*

Get the blank newsprint pages and marker ready for use.

Get a different member of the group to record the ideas.

Set a time limit - 10 to 15 minutes will work best - and have someone keep track of the time.

REVIEW: Now before we begin, let's review the rules for "Brainstorming."

First, a freewheeling exchange of ideas is required;

Second, no criticism of ideas is allowed;

Third, we should display our ideas;

Fourth, combining and improving ideas is encouraged; and

Last, a large number of ideas is our goal.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Write the following statement on a page of newsprint and display it before the group:*

"In order to improve the operations of our program we need to ______________________*."*

If your group is composed of members from more than just your own office use the following statement for "Brainstorming":

"In order to improve the operations of our programs we need to ____________________*."*

BEGIN "BRAINSTORMING".

Make sure all suggestions are recorded and all rules followed. When you have finished the "Brainstorming" session you are ready to begin organizing your ideas.

CLUSTERING

organize ideas

under

topic headings

CLUSTERING: Now that we have a list of needs, we're ready to organize them into a workable form. To do this we will cluster the ideas under general topic headings.

HEADINGS: While I'm putting up more blank pages of newsprint, look at the list of ideas and see if it suggests any general headings such as "Office Management", "Enrollee Services", "Communications", "Equipment", and so on, that we group the needs under.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Put up at least five or more blank pages of newsprint. Allow the group time to identify and select the general headings they think are suggested by the ideas that came from the "Brainstorming", then write these on the top of the blank pages of newsprint.*

ORGANIZING: Now we should take each item on the list, one at a time, and decide the heading under which it should be placed. Now is also the time to insure that all the ideas are understood and defined.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow sufficient time for the group to organize all the ideas. Insure that everyone understands what is meant by each idea. Group members can ask each other what they meant by the idea they suggested, and people can revise, clarify, or combine ideas during this stage. Ideas that don't fit under the chosen headings can be put into a "miscellaneous" group. When the group has completed the task, continue on to the next step.*

COMBINING

combine similar ideas

eliminate inappropriate ideas

CLARIFYING

define and write in statement form

COMBINING: Now, let's look at the lists: first, we'll combine all ideas that are simply different ways of saying the same thing, then let's eliminate all those ideas that are obviously inappropriate, or just jokes.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group time to go through the lists and combine and eliminate ideas where appropriate.*

CLARIFYING: The last step in processing these ideas is to write them in a statement, such as: "We need a more efficient way to process new applicants". Let's begin now and write all of the ideas in sentence form on a new sheet of newsprint.

SAVE YOUR IDEAS: Before we go on, let's make sure that we have a way of saving these ideas. We'll need the entire list at later points in the Workshop.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *This might be a good time to take a break if you haven't already done so.*

SETTING PRIORITIES:

achieving consensus

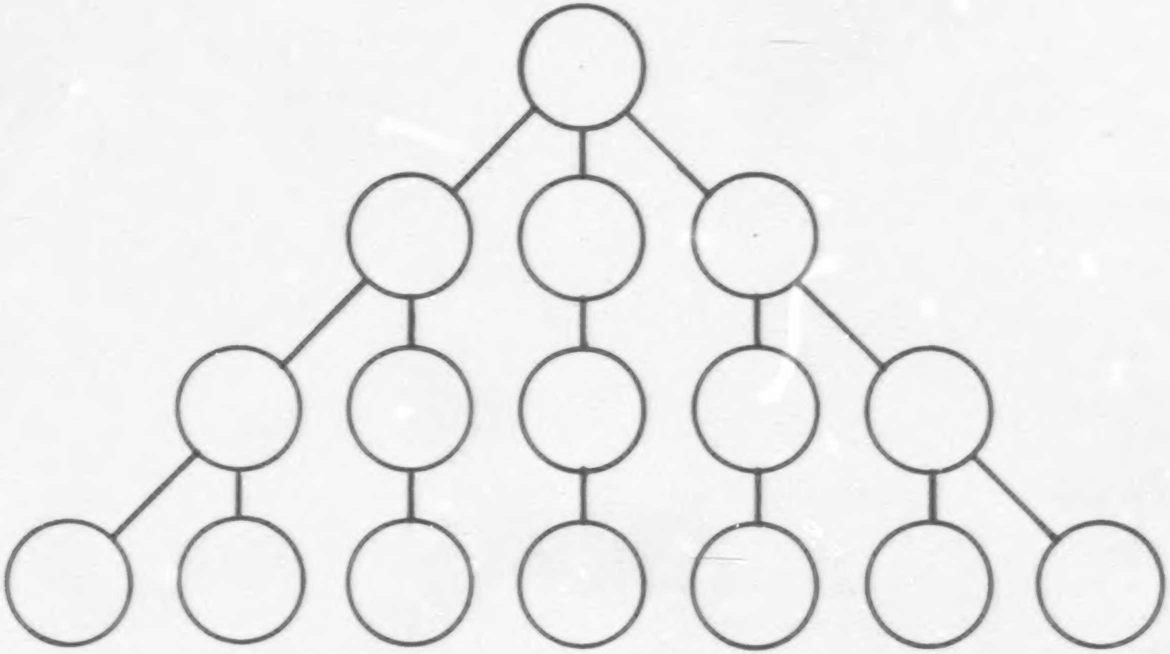
SETTING PRIORITIES:

We can't begin work on everything at once. If we divide our energies in that way, we are likely to accomplish very little. It's better to concentrate on the most important problem, and do something significant. But which problem is the most important? In the discussion that follows, it is assumed that there are staff members in this agency who are not members of this LODI Workshop group: however, if all staff members of the agency are in this Workshop group, we can ignore all references to the involvement of other staff.

Suppose we can achieve consensus in this group about the relative importance of the needs on the brainstormed list. But a need that this group thinks is most important may not be as important for the rest of the staff; in addition, they might think of a need that we've overlooked. The best way to decide on the most important concern is to involve the entire staff in making the decision. As the "Lost on the Moon" exercise tried to demonstrate, groups tend to make better decisions than any individual member. One other important fact is that individuals tend to have a much greater commitment to the success of decisions they have participated in making. If we want any project to succeed, we should get as much involvement from the staff as possible in making the decisions.

So our problem now becomes: how do we get the staff involved in setting priorities on the needs we have defined; and, how do we arrive at a consensus with such a large group? The technique we will use to accomplish this is called the Delphi Technique.

The Delphi Technique



DELPHI TECHNIQUE: "Delphi" is a way of involving everyone in deciding on priorities. Like "Brainstorming" it encourages participation by everyone including those who might be reluctant to express their opinions in front of the group. Unlike "Brainstorming", it accomplishes this through a kind of secret ballot, rather than by disallowing criticism of anyone's ideas.

First we have to prepare a typewritten list of the needs statements we "Brainstormed" and clustered, leaving out the topic headings. The list should include:

1. A brief explanation telling the staff what the list is, why we want their opinions, and what we want them to do with the list.

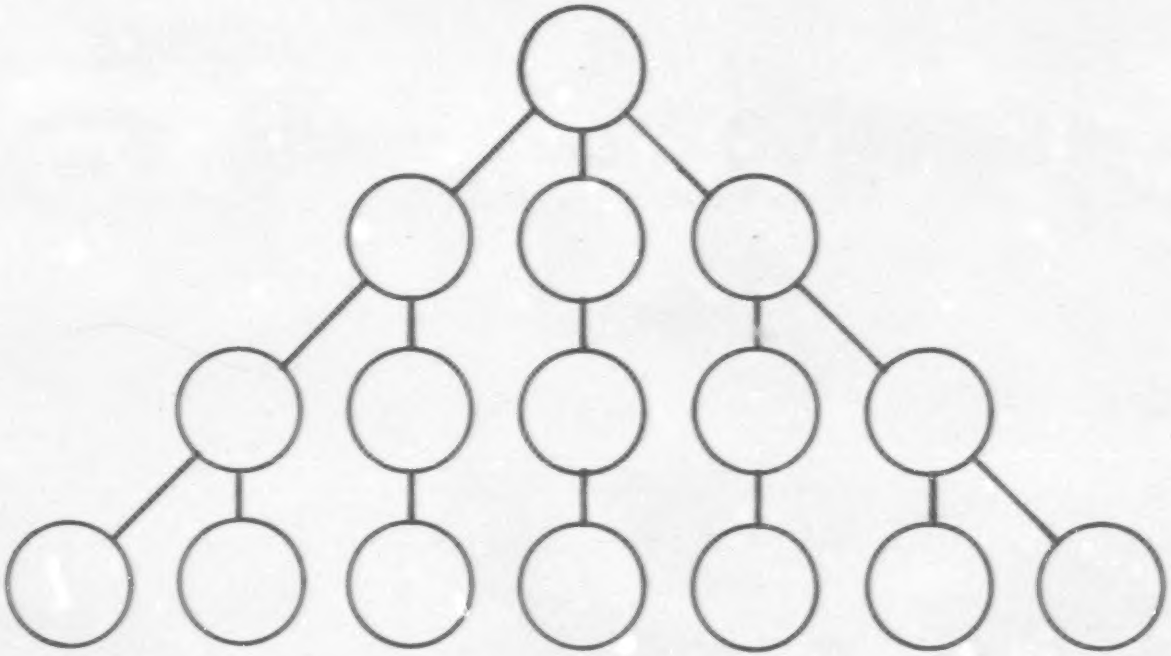
2. A time by which the list must be returned so that the completed lists can be processed before the next session.

3. A way in which each staff member can rank what he or she thinks are the most important needs on the list.

WORKBOOK: If you'll turn to page 37 of your Workbook, you'll find a sample memorandum we can attach to the list that is to be prioritized. Take a minute or so to read the memorandum and then let's decide how we'll proceed.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group sufficient time to read the memorandum and discuss it if they so desire. The group could use the sample as a model or come up with their own memo: have them decide what they want to do about this before going on.*

The Delphi Technique



EXAMPLE: On page 38 of the Workbook, is an example of a list of need statements. The directions are very simple: people are asked to circle the number opposite the statement which best expresses what they they think about the importance of the statement.

For example, if someone feels that statement 1, "being able to process more applicants in less time", is most important, he or she would circle the number 3 to the right of the statement.

There are two things about this ranking procedure that are important: first, each person should make up his or her mind privately so that we can get an accurate reading of each person's honest opinions, freely given. So we should not ask people to sign their names to the rankings.

Second, every list should contain space for people to write in other need statements which we may have overlooked, and, if they want, their reasons for thinking these needs are important.

The list of need statements with a memorandum like the sample in the Workbook should be sent out to the staff. When they are returned the ratings must be tabulated. When we worked out our contract, the job of getting the memo out, and tabulating the results was given to someone. Who was that? So it's (*fill in the person's name*) responsibility to circulate the lists and tabulate the responses, but we should all learn how to do it. Since there are some further steps in the Delphi Technique, the list should be circulated as soon as possible, with a short return deadline.

IMPORTANCE

Not	Fairly	Very	Most
0	1	2	3
𝍸	𝍸///	///	//
5	8	3	2
x 0	x 1	x 2	x 3
0	8	6	6

0 + 8 + 6 + 6 = 20

EXAMPLE: On page 39 of your Workbook, you'll find an example that shows how to tabulate the rankings.

Step 1. First take all the rating sheets and count the number of times that each of the four catagories to the right of the statement was chosen: record the numbers on a spare list. In the example, 5 people responded to Statement #1 by circling the zero, 8 responded by circling the one, 3 by circling the two, and 2 responded by circling the three. This gives a total of 18 responses. Such counting marks and computations can be written on an extra copy of the list we send to the staff.

Step 2. Second, we must compute a value for the responses. This is done, as in the example, by multiplying the number of responses by the value of the response. Using Statement #1 again as an example you can see how this was accomplished: 5 responses times the value of zero equals zero; 8 responses times the value of 1 equals 8; 3 responses times the value 2 equals 6; and 2 responses times the value 3 equals 6. Now that the values for the catagories are computed, just add them together to get the value for Statement #1: 0 + 8 + 6 + 6 = 20. So the value for Statement #1 is 20. Statement #2 is done in the same way and has a value of 37, which means that Statement #2 is considered more important by the staff than Statement #1. This process has to be completed for each statement on the list.

2nd ROUND OF "DELPHI"

- New list with statements listed in descending order of ranking points

- Limited choice

DELPHI TECHNIQUE:

Step 3. After all the values for the need statements have been computed, we must prepare another list, for the second step in the Delphi Technique. But this time we will list the statements in order based upon the number of points they received, and showing the total number of points received for each statement. So then, on the second list, the first need statement listed will be the one which received the highest rating. All the other statements will be listed in descending order, based upon the number of total rating points they received. At the bottom of page 3 in your Workbook is an example of how this is done.

Step 4. This second list is now sent to the staff as before, with a new column headed: Points Received During the Last Round. The staff will be asked to rate the statements as before, but this time they are to rate only the statements they consider to be most important. We could ask them to rate only the 5 statements they consider most important, but certainly no more than the 10 they consider most important. This group will decide how many to have them rate on the second go-around. Again, when the responses are returned, they will be processed as before and we will continue to submit lists to the staff until the group believes that a clear consensus has been achieved. This normally requires only two go-arounds; three if the initial list was fairly long. If consensus is not achieved after three rounds, it's likely that we've gotten all the changes in people's ratings that we're going to get, using Delphi. At that point, face to face discussion within the staff group is needed, to work out a generally acceptable list of priorities.

another technique

"PAIRED COMPARISONS"

PAIRED COMPARISONS:

There are two alternatives to the method we have just discussed for arriving at consensus. One is the Paired Comparison Technique; the other is the Nominal Group Technique. The Paired Comparison technique is particularly effective if we have narrowed the list down to from three to seven statements which appear to have equal importance. It breaks any ties in ratings, and shows how large the gaps are among the items. A complete explanation of this technique is contained in the Resource Packet entitled "Method of Paired Comparisons."

The Nominal Group Technique is useful if consensus must be achieved in one meeting. Since it does not make use of "Brainstorming" it takes less time to complete than the combination of Brainstorming and Delphi that has just been described. It can be used with a large group, if the entire group is present for discussion, first in sub-groups, then followed by feedback to the entire group. A complete explanation is found in the Resource Packet entitled "The Nominal Group Technique."

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Make sure that plans for getting the memorandum and list duplicated and distributed, tabulations done, a second memo and list prepared, and so forth are taken care of. If the Workshop group includes all staff, you could decide to run the Delphi during this session, or between sessions. If the Workshop group does not include all staff, you will need to work out plans that involve everyone in the use of the Delphi Technique, between this session and the next session. Be sure that you keep a copy of the typewritten list of needs that the group "Brainstormed": it will be needed in a later session.

Other uses for

- BRAINSTORMING
- DELPHI

CONCLUSION: Once priorities are determined we can move on to the next chapter on "Goals." This will help us move from general statements of need to specific statements of goals. Now, before we end this session, we should take a few minutes to discuss uses of "Brainstorming" and "Delphi" in our program, other than for achieving consensus on high priority program needs.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the group has no ideas on this, suggest that they look at the Workbook, on page 40 through 43, for brief descriptions of ways to use the techniques apart from developing a list of program needs. Depending on time, you may also want to ask if the group has any ideas about the things future Convenors might do to help the group work better.*

CHAPTER III

GOALS

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER III

GOALS

CHAPTER III

GOALS

VAGUE NEEDS

TO

SPECIFIC GOALS

INTRODUCTION: A need statement expresses the difference between the way things are, and the [illegible] we'd like them to be. Such statements tend to be global and abstract: they're often too vague to suggest possible solutions, and too general to provide a way of measuring the effectiveness of attempted solutions.

In this chapter we'll practice a method for changing abstract need statements into specific goal statements that would allow us to determine how successful a project has been.

Objectives:

1. Convert need statements to goals.
2. Recognize objective or subjective need statements.
3. Select the need for the workshop project.

OBJECTIVES:

Specifically, there are three objectives for this unit. When we're finished:

1. We should be able to convert need statements into specific statements of measurable goals
2. We should be able to recognize the difference between objective and subjective need statements, and convert either into specific goal statements; and
3. We should have selected the need to work on for the Workshop project.

Specific Goal Statements

1. Identify the target

2. Describe measurable results or actions

3. Specify minimal criteria

CREATING GOAL STATEMENTS:

There are three steps in changing a need statement into a specific goal statements:

1. Identify the target of the activity;
2. Describe specific results or actions in relation to the target that can be measured or observed;
3. State a minimum criterion for success of the activity.

We'll discuss these one at a time.

THE TARGET

PERSONS
PLACES
THINGS
CONDITIONS

"TARGET" DEFINED:

The "target" is a general term for the persons, places, things or conditions that is to be changed. So the target is who or what gets measured to see if change has taken place. All of the following are examples of targets: The behavior of interviewers or managers, or the way in which equipment is used, or the ways in which information is circulated among staff, or the location of the office, and so forth.

EXAMPLES:

WHAT ARE THE TARGETS?

To make sure this is clear, look at Exercise 1 on page 48 of your workbook. There's a list of five statements concerning some possible office goals. Read through each statement and identify the "target" of the statement - that is, the person, place, thing or situation to be changed. Identify the target in each statement by underlining or circling all of the words in the statement that describe the target.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow sufficient time for the group to complete the task, then ask for volunteers from the group to read a statement and indicate what they think is the target. If anyone should ask, the target can be described in one word or in more than one word. The correct answers to the statements are as follows:*

1. *ALL NEW STAFF MEMBERS*
2. *VISITS MADE BY COUNSELORS*
3. *THE USE OF TAPE RECORDERS*
4. *FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS THAT TAKE PLACE AT JOB SITES (OR THOSE WHO CONDUCT THESE INTERVIEWS)*
5. *THE WAITING TIME*

If there are disagreements with these "correct" answers, have the group discuss the disagreement. The important point is not whether we (the authors) are correct or not: the point is to remember that "target" refers to something specific to be changed, and must be clearly identified and understood by all, as a first step in developing specific goal statements.

Expected Outcome:

- Results

- Actions

"RESULT OR ACTION" DEFINED:

The term "results or actions" refers to the specific outcome to be achieved or the behavior change to be accomplished through a project. "Results or action" must be stated in terms that can be measured. For example, the action to be affected in statement #1 is "attendance" because we can measure whether they did or did not attend the orientation session. We would not say in a specific goal statement that new staff members should "understand" what is said in orientation meetings, because the process "understand" cannot be observed. To measure "understanding" we might give a test, but then our goal statement would be something like: "All new staff members must pass a test based on the content of an orientation session." In that case, "passing a test" would be the desired result or action.

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

The important point here is not that only measurable things are important, but that whatever is important enough to work on is worth specifying in relation to some indicator, that is, in relation to something measurable, so that there is evidence about the degree to which a goal has been achieved. However, some things are intangible and hard to measure. These will be covered later in the chapter, under the heading of "subjective needs." If group members raise questions about such intangibles, explain that it will be covered, later in the chapter.

Expected Outcome:

- Results
- Actions

EXAMPLES OF RESULTS OR ACTIONS:

Exercise #2, on page 48 of your Workbook is comprised of three sample statements. Read each of the statements, and identify the "specific results or actions" part of each statement.

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Allow the group sufficient time to complete this task before continuing. When everyone is done, ask for volunteers to share their answers for statements number 1, and then 2 with the group, but *__not__* *for number 3.*

The "specific results or action" are:

1. ASK (this is a specific, observable action)
2. LOCATE NEW JOBS (this is an observable result)

Statement number 3 does not contain a specific action or result according to the definition, because it does not describe something that can be observed and measured. "Appreciation" by itself is not observable. While it might be one result we hope to achieve, it's not a measurable result. How could it be re-stated so that there would be some measure of results?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Let the group discuss possible ways of restating #3 before continuing. One "correct" answer might be: "all staff members who borrow agency tape recorders will fill out the requisition forms correctly and on time." If the group does not arrive at a similar answer, read this answer to them. Point out that filling out the forms is a measurable sign of appreciating their importance. Don't get trapped into bickering over a definition of "appreciation." Whether or not staff like the procedure or think it's a valuable procedure, the desired result is to change the way tape recorders are used so that they do not get lost, or are unaccountably out of the building when someone is counting on using one.

Minimum Criterion of Success

- PERCENT
- DEGREE
- AMOUNT

"CRITERION OF SUCCESS" DEFINED:

We've now specified "targets" and "results or actions." The last portion of a specific goal statement, "minimum criterion of success" refers to the lowest level of achievement that we would still consider a success. It's often expressed as percentage, degree, or amount of the target to be affected by the program. Another way to say this is that it's the quantity or quality of change we intend to achieve.

Examples Of

Criteria Of Success

CRITERION EXAMPLES:

On page 49 of the Workbook are some examples of criteria. The criterion in each of these examples is indicated by a percentage. This is the minimum result that will be accepted before the project can be called successful in achieving its intention. In the first example there has to be a 20% increase in applicants. In the second example, 50% of the applicants have to still be on the job 90 days after hire. In the last example sex discrimination complaints have to decrease by 80%.

Some people don't like to use percentages when stating criteria. Take the last statement: it might also be stated: "complaints of sexually discriminating hiring policies will be reduced to a minimal level." Now _if_ everyone knows that "minimal level" refers to one or two complaints a month and _if_ everyone knows that at least 10 complaints a month have been received for the past six months, then "minimal level" may be OK. But that's a lot of "ifs." Chances are that the use of a percent figure is the best way to make clear what is meant by "success." Or, specific numbers, such as "5 complaints or less" are more appropriate. Before going on, let's see if this is clear.

EXERCISE 4.

Example:

(target)
Interviewers will take

(criterion)
five minutes or less to

(action / result)
fill out a client's control form.

QUIZ 2: Look at Exercise 4 on page 50 of the Workbook. In the first example, "interviewers" is the target, the specific action or result is "fill out a client's control form," and the criterion is "in five minutes or less."

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Make sure the instructions are clear, then direct everyone to complete the exercise. Once everyone is finished, have different people read their answers (answers like those below would be correct).*

Action/Results — Target — Criterion
2. Reduce — the number of clients who do not keep their appointments — by 80%.

Criterion — Target
3. Every week, two — staff who have never visited job sites to which enrollees are sent
Action/Results
will visit one site.

Target — Action/Result — Criterion
4. The number of pre-employment interviews clients have — should be reduced — by 25%.

Target — Action/Results — Criterion
5. Hot coffee — will be made and ready for staff consumption — by 9:00 a.m. each morning.

People in the group might have phrased these criteria differently. The important point is that some minimum standard for judging success is clearly identified for everyone. Make sure everyone is clear on the distinction between "target," "actions or results" and "criteria." Then continue.

OBJECTIVE NEED: OBSERVED

SUBJECTIVE NEED: FELT

OBJECTIVE NEED/ SUBJECTIVE NEED:

To review: specific goal statements identify a target, describe specific results or actions in relation to that target that can be measured, and state a minimum criteria for success. But when changing vague or abstract need statements into specific goal statements, you'll find that there are two kinds of needs - objective needs and subjective needs - and that each poses a different problem when you try to convert it into a specific goal statement.

Objective needs refer to things which can be seen and easily measured or counted.

Subjective need statements refer to opinions, feelings, or judgements. They are less easy to measure, and often not easy to describe.

OBJECTIVE NEED

- a raise of $75 a month
- a batting average of .300
- a loss of 20 lbs

EXAMPLES OF OBJECTIVE NEEDS AND SUBJECTIVE NEEDS:

The phrases on the Display Page come from objective need and subjective need statements. Objective needs can be measured in units such as dollars, percentages or pounds; subjective needs are hard to measure in terms other than feelings or opinion.

Let's see if this is clear. The term "need" was defined as "the difference between the way things are and the way we would like them to be." Here is an objective need statement. "I'm going to have to have a raise of at least $75 a month to meet the payments on the house I'd like to buy." This person's need is to make more money in order to pay his bills; it is an objective need because we can measure the amount of money he needs to fulfill the need. Now see if you can make up an objective need statement that uses the phrase, "a batting average of .300".

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Ask for a volunteer to make up an objective need statement. Something like the following will do: "Unless the team finds someone who can be relied on to have a batting average of .300, they won't win the pennant." Make sure the group agrees that the volunteer's need statement is "objective."

How about an objective need statement using the phrase "lose twenty pounds?"

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Ask for a different volunteer to make up an objective need statement. Something like this will do: "I have to lose twenty pounds if I want to be within a safe limit." Again make sure the group agrees that the need statement is "objective."

SUBJECTIVE NEED

- a relaxed environment
- a positive self-image
- increased staff cooperation

Now for subjective needs.

Here's an example of a subjective need statement using the phrase "a relaxed environment": "I wish we had a more relaxed environment around here: everyone's uptight these days, and it's affecting my work." Clearly, this person feels a need for an easing of tensions, but it's hard to say what aspects of the environment the person wants to be relaxed, or what behaviors he or she considers to be "uptight", because it is subjectively felt and subjectively stated. Someone might think that the person is referring to the pace of work when talking about a relaxed environment, and they'd work on that, only to find out later that it was the competitiveness among staff members that was meant, and not the work pace. Similarly, "positive self image" and "staff cooperation" are also hard to measure.

EXERCISE I.

Are the needs objective or subjective ?

Look again at exercise #3 in your Workbook on page 49. Read each of the statements and decide whether they refer to objective or subjective needs.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *When everyone has finished, ask for volunteers to share their answers with the group. The correct responses to the exercises are listed below.*

1. *Subjective. Satisfaction is a feeling, and one that may vary from person to person. What may be satisfying to you may not be satisfying to me.*
2. *Objective. Waiting clients can be observed, counted and timed.*
3. *Subjective. What is meant by "privacy?" Does it mean the counselor will have his or her own office; that the door will be closed; that no one will check on his or her work; or that there are no hidden microphones? In this case, "privacy" could refer to any of these things, including a reduction in gossiping.*
4. *Subjective. Sensitivity is a feeling.*
5. *Objective. Job listings can be counted.*

With this distinction between objective and subjective let's look at the first five need statements on our final Delphi or Nominal Group list, and discuss each in turn, deciding which represents an objective need and which a subjective need.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the group does not know the final results of the Delphi, ask the staff members who were responsible for the outside work on Delphi to report. Have the group review the first 5 statements and decide which is objective and which is subjective. Make sure everyone understands that an objective need statement is one that people can agree on, and a subjective one can have so many different meanings that it's difficult to know what it means.*

Selecting a need for the workshop project:

- HIGH ON THE LIST OF NEEDS
- IS AN IMPORTANT NEED
- NOT A CRITICAL NEED

At this point we should select a need to serve as the basis for the workshop project. If we weren't in a training situation, we would simply select the top-rated need from the Delphi or Nominal Group list and begin to work on it. But that could be a problem. There are five more chapters to this workshop. In each one we are to take a further step toward resolving the need as a way of practicing and applying the methods presented in each chapter. The most important need on our list may not be able to wait that long.

Given the time left in the workshop series for the workshop project, we should select a need which 1) is high on the Delphi or Nominal Group list; 2) is important, but 3) is not so critical that we must have a solution before the end of the workshop series.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Remind the group, or ask a participant to remind the group, of the date when the workshop series will be over.*

Let's look at the list and select the need which we will use for our workshop project.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *It may be necessary for you to remind the group that it shouldn't lightly reject a need that others on staff think is important. It's not a time to consider solutions to the need. A need should be selected for which alternative solutions can be created, the relative advantage of the alternatives compared, one selection selected and implemented, etc., in short, a need that could justifiably serve as the basis for practicing the methods covered in the rest of LODI. If the group can't reach consensus on the need to be selected within 5-10 minutes, propose a vote among the top 3.*

OBJECTIVE NEED STATEMENT

TO

A

SPECIFIC GOAL STATEMENT

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the group's high priority need was stated as an objective need, then turning it into a specific goal statement now would move the group along on its chosen project. If the high priority need was stated as a subjective need, working on an objective need statement now is just for the sake of learning how to do this, and should help prepare the way for working on the high priority statement of subjective need, later in this chapter. Make clear to the group whether they're working on the project goals or just practicing the translation procedure.*

Let's take a statement we identified as an objective need statement and turn it into a specific goal statement.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If none of the first five need statements was labeled an objective need statement, then continue down the list until an objective statement is identified. If there are none at all, skip to the next page.*

In writing this statement, remember to think in terms of a target, results or actions and criteria.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Don't let the group get ahead of itself and begin talking about how to solve the problem. If they do, remind them that they're getting ahead of themselves because this will be handled in the next chapter. If the group needs additional practice, select several objective need statements to turn into specific goal statements. But if the high priority need was "objective," you should now have a specific goal statement for the LODI project.*

Subjective need statements to specific goal statements

- Write down the need
- List the indicators
- Sort the list
- Check for completeness

SUBJECTIVE NEEDS: Now let's work on subjective need statements.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Again, depending on which need has been chosen as the focus of the group's project, this might serve to produce the project's actual goal statement, or simply be an exercise in learning how to translate subjective need statements into specific goal statements. Be sure that the group knows which this is.*

There are four steps in converting subjective needs into specific goal statements:

1. Write down the need.
2. List indicators.
3. Sort the list.
4. Check for completeness.

We'll talk about each in turn.

STEP 1

Write down the need

To begin we must take a subjective need statement from the list of needs and write it down on newsprint or on a chalkboard.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Make sure that the need statement is written for all to see. If there are no subjective need statements, ask the group to make one up, for practice.*

STEP 2

List the indicators

INDICATORS OF SUBJECTIVE NEEDS:

Although we can't directly observe a subjective need there is a way we can tell if it exists or not: we look for indicators. These are clues or evidence...things that people do or say...that let us make guesses about the need. Although we cannot directly see "staff cooperation" there are certain things we can look for that lead us to conclude, "yes, there is staff cooperation" or "no, staff cooperation doesn't exist here."

Before we list the indicators for the need we selected let's look at an example and get some practice.

INDICATORS

OF STAFF

COOPERATION

Take the example of "staff cooperation." On page 51 of the Workbook there is a list of indicators that tell whether the staff is or is not cooperating. Remember: we can't see "staff cooperation" but we can see these indicators. Read these indicators over and see what others we can add. The question to ask yourself is: "what do I look for when I want to know if staff members in an agency are cooperating?"

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Give participants enough time to look over the list and write down any additions.*

Can anyone add any indicators to this list?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion before continuing.*

List the indicators:

Now let's work on a subjective need from our list. What are the indicators for the subjective need we have chosen from our list?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the subjective need taken from the Delphi list happens to be "staff cooperation," work on another need from the list.*

STEP 3

Sort the list

Delete:

- duplication
- unwanted and subjective statements

SORT OUT YOUR LIST: Once a list has been made we should go back over it and sort things out. There are two ways to sort the list. One way is to cross out any duplications, items that on second thought we don't want, and indicators that are themselves subjective (that is, items that can't be seen).

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group eliminate these items from the list. Then continue.*

May Must Must Not

SORT OUT YOUR LIST:

The second way to sort the list is to place each of the remaining indicators in one of three columns: must, may, and must not. For any subjective goal there are some indicators that must be seen, some that might be seen, and some that must not be seen. For example, if there was a lot of bickering, it would be an indicator of poor "staff cooperation." So something which must not be seen when looking for evidence of cooperation would be "a lot of bickering." We would say that we achieved our objective if:

- all of the "must" behaviors were present.
- none of the "must not" behaviors were present, and
- some of the "may" behaviors were there.

May Must Must Not

Look at page 51 again. The first indicator was "staff members respond frequently to requests for assistance." Is that a must indicator? In other words is that so important that if it didn't happen we would say, "These staff members are not cooperating?" (PAUSE *for discussion*) "Responding frequently to requests for assistance" is a "must"; in other words, it is an essential component of staff cooperation. On the other hand "volunteering often to help others" and "after" hours friendships" might be desirable, and suggest cooperation, but they are not "musts." We can think of people who aren't afterhours friends and don't volunteer to do things, but are still considered cooperative. These are "may" indicators. Indicator #5 about "derogatory remarks" is a "must not." If staff members often make derogatory remarks behind someone's back, they are not cooperating, at least not in terms of most people's definition of "cooperation." Now let's sort the additional indicators for staff cooperation that we came up with.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, more additions, and disagreement with the suggested sorting.*

Now let's sort all the indicators from our list into "may," "must," and "must not" categories.

STEP 4

- Completeness
- Is this what I mean?

IS THIS WHAT I MEAN? Now is the time to ask yourselves the question "is this what I mean by the need?" The list of indicators we have developed is an operational definition of our goal. If we are uncomfortable with its completeness, we've probably left something out. On the other hand, even if we are comfortable, we should feel free to add indicators as we think of them in the future.

Let's examine our list of indicators for completeness.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, additions, and deletions. When group members are satisfied say:*

These are the indicators we would rely on to convert our subjective need statement into a specific goal statement. Thus, these indicators are also the criteria we would use to judge our success in resolving this need.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the group's high priority need was "subjective," you should now have a specific goal statement (based on that need) for use in your LODI project.*

Other Uses For

Specific Goal Statements

Before we conclude this chapter, it would be interesting to know whether people see other uses for specific goal statements besides establishing goals for a project like the one we're working on. Has anybody used specific goal statements or does anyone have some ideas about other ways in which they could be used in his or her work?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Encourage some discussion of this question. If anyone's used specific goal statements, ask them to describe what happened. If people are stumped, suggest that they look at the example on page 52 of the Workbook.*

NEXT:

Creating Program

Alternatives

CONCLUSION: We have now translated the workshop project need statement into a specific goal statement. Let's restate that goal. *(Do so)*. With our goal stated in specific terms, we're ready for the next step: creating program alternatives. In the next chapter, we'll work on developing a number of different ways to achieve the goal we've selected.

CHAPTER IV

CREATING PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER IV

CREATING PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES

CHAPTER IV

CREATING PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES

Using Brainstorming To

CREATE

SOLUTIONS

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Since this chapter focuses solely on "Brainstorming" you may want to review the section on Brainstorming in Chapter II before starting this session.*

"BRAINSTORMING" PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES: We used the "Brainstorming" technique in the second chapter to determine the needs of our office. By forbidding criticism in "Brainstorming" we allowed all the group members to express their concerns without fear of comment. In this chapter we're more concerned with creating solutions than determining needs. We want our imaginations to flow so that we come up with a large number of ways to reach our goal. We should freewheel, combine, improve and expand. Our objective is to agree on two or three possible solutions, each of which looks like a feasible way to achieve our goal.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *"The goal we selected" refers to the specific goal statement selected by the group by the end of chapter III. If some time has elapsed since the group completed Chapter III, it might be helpful to re-read that goal statement.*

Rules for "Brainstorming"

1. Freewheeling is required
2. No criticism is allowed
3. Display the ideas
4. Combining and improving ideas is encouraged
5. Quantity of ideas is the goal

GOALS OF THE LODI PROJECT: In the last chapter, we selected a goal to work on for our workshop project. Let's see how many alternative ways we can think of to reach that goal, using "Brainstorming."

In creating our list, we should recognize that we ourselves may not know all the ways the goal could be achieved: however, there may be resources in the community that we could draw on for help, such as: people in other programs like ours who have tried to achieve similar goals; college or university faculty who may know something about such a project; reports or journal articles about projects like ours, and so forth. We shouldn't worry now about implementing the ideas - let's just see how many ideas we can come up with.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Set up for "Brainstorming." Agree on a time limit, get someone to write the ideas for all to see, and begin. At the end of the time limit, turn the page. Make sure that everyone is clear that the assignment is to brainstorm different ways of achieving this goal.*

CLUSTERING IDEAS

CLUSTERING AND COMBINING IDEAS: Now that the "Brainstorming" is done we should cluster the ideas under general topics and combine similar ideas as we did when we brainstormed our needs in Chapter II.

Preliminary Screening

Eliminate Suggestions Which:

- **Don't help achieve the objective**
- **Are prohibited by law or regulation**
- **Are totally non-serious**
- **Would require total system changes**

When we began "Brainstorming" we set aside judgment and "rationality". Now is the time to bring them back into the discussion.

We now want to look at the alternatives we "Brainstormed" to eliminate those which:

- would not help achieve the objective.
- are prohibited by law or regulation.
- are totally non-serious, or
- would require such a complete change of system that it wouldn't be worthwhile.

If we aren't sure about an alternative we should keep it. We can always discard it later. As we look at the possible solutions we've created, we could use any of the procedures mentioned in Chapter II, that is the Delphi Technique, the Nominal Group Technique or the Paired Comparison Technique, to choose at least two and not more than three alternative solutions.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Make sure that the group selects no more than 3 alternative solutions before moving on.*

PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES:

CREATED!

In the next chapter, we'll learn how to select the best alternative by comparing the relative advantage of each.

CHAPTER V

RELATIVE ADVANTAGE

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1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
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CHAPTER V

RELATIVE ADVANTAGE

CHAPTER V

RELATIVE ADVANTAGE

Relative Advantage:

THE BEST BALANCE OF

PAYOFFS AND COSTS.

INTRODUCTION: In the last chapter we brainstormed several ways to achieve the goal of our project, then selected two or three possible ways, each of which looked good. But how do we decide which is best for our purposes? The approach taught in this session provides a way to compare the payoffs and costs of each alternative in order to select the best one.

OBJECTIVES: There are three objectives for this session:

1) By the end of this unit we should be able to identify and compare the payoffs and costs for each of several alternatives that could be used to achieve an objective; then
2) We should be able to select the alternative that has the best overall balance of payoffs and costs - that is, the alternative with the best "relative advantage" for us; and
3) We should have selected the alternative that's best in relation to our project.

NOT

COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS

A DISCLAIMER: Before we begin, however, it's important to recognize the limited nature of this chapter's objectives.

The techniques of cost-benefit analysis and cost-effectiveness analysis are quite complex, involving considerable expertise. Computing the cost of one intake interview, for example, requires information about the interviewer's salary, the length of time required for the interview, the number of intake interviews that occur in a week, overhead costs such as electricity, costs for recording the information gained during the interview, and so forth.

This is why LODI substitutes the term "payoff" for the term "benefit": so no one thinks that the chapter will cover the intricacies of cost-benefit analysis. It's assumed that most human service programs make use of auditors, accountants, and administrators who keep a close watch on income and expenditures, and that the financial data they generate could be made available to planning groups who are trying to make program decisions.

Therefore, this chapter devotes greater attention to the question of intangible payoffs and costs while still recognizing the importance of tangible items. The chapter should help us to make program decisions with an eye to the relative merits of different potential solutions.

PAYOFFS:

THE CLOSER YOU COME TO YOUR OBJECTIVE, THE MORE PAYOFFS YOU ACHIEVE.

PAYOFFS: "Payoffs" are the expected or realized outcomes which result from an activity.

"Payoffs" can also be defined in terms of goals: the more you achieve a specific goal, the more payoff you get. An example of a tangible payoff would be:

- an increase in the number of enrollees finding and holding full time employment.

An example of an intangible payoff would be:

- greater and more widespread staff satisfaction with their jobs.

Intangible payoffs can be described in terms of good feelings, desirable interactions between people, opportunities gained, etc.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Ask if this is clear. If people have trouble with it suggest that the group create lists of tangible and then intangible payoffs involved in running the office or the program, and let the group decide whether or not the distinctions between "tangible" and "intangible" are correct. However, if there are no problems with this, go right on.*

COSTS:

TANGIBLE AND INTANGIBLE RESOURCES USED TO ACHIEVE OBJECTIVES.

COSTS: "Costs" can be defined as the tangible and intangible resources that must be used to reach a goal. An example of a tangible cost would be:

- The salaries paid to staff members.

An example of an intangible cost would be:

- The annoyance that staff members feel about having a limit put on their use of the office telephones.

Tangible costs can be measured in dollars-and-cents, in the time it takes to do something, in the number of people it takes to do something, and so forth. Intangible costs are harder to measure; they are best described as bad feelings, negative interactions between people, opportunities lost, and so forth.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *As before, ask if anyone is unclear about this. If not, move on. If there are questions, you might again look for examples of tangible and intangible costs, letting the group decide on the correctness of each distinction.*

TANGIBLE – costs or payoffs

CAN BE MEASURED IN DOLLAR-AND-CENTS.

INTANGIBLE- costs or payoffs

HARD TO MEASURE

**FEELINGS...INTERACTIONS...
OPPORTUNITIES**

Recognizing tangible and intangible payoffs and costs is basic to the process that follows: let's make sure it's clear. On page 59 of the Workbook, you'll find a short exercise. Complete it and then let's see if there are any questions.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Give members time to do the exercise, and time to check their answers against the correct answers on page 60. When everyone's finished, ask:*

Are there any parts of that exercise that you want to discuss?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If anyone had difficulty with any of the items, ask the group to discuss them until the correct answers are clear to everyone. Someone might note that it's possible to have an intangible and tangible result out of one action: for example, in item "d" you not only save money (a tangible payoff) but have the satisfaction of finding that particular item (an intangible payoff - satisfaction). On the other hand, someone important to you might criticize you for buying that item, even though you got it on sale (an intangible cost - criticism) and that (intangible) cost might outweigh the payoffs for you. The point to emphasize here is that it's important to recognize potential payoffs and costs as fully as possible so that they can be taken into account when determining the relative advantage of different alternatives.*

LIST THE PEOPLE WHO

WILL BE AFFECTED

By definition, identifying intangibles is difficult: intangible means "something that cannot be touched."

One way to identify the intangible payoffs and costs of any plan is to list all of the people who are likely to be affected by the plan, and then to ask yourself how each person on your list would be likely to respond to the plan. For instance, if an administrator is likely to view a plan as helpful to him in handling a difficult problem, his ongoing support could be viewed as an intangible payoff. However, members of the maintenance staff might see the plan only in terms of the extra work it would entail, becoming generally more uncooperative as a result - an intangible cost.

WHO WOULD BE AFFECTED IF WE OPENED AND CLOSED THE OFFICE A HALF AN HOUR EARLIER THAN WE DO NOW?

HOW WOULD THEY RESPOND?

Suppose a plan to resolve some problem called for opening the office half an hour earlier than you do now, and closing a half hour earlier. Who would be affected, and how would they respond? Which responses would be intangible payoffs? Which would be intangible costs?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Encourage the group to create such a list. Be sure that clients are included in the list. If the group has trouble knowing how someone might respond, suggest that one of them role play the person in question, being told about the plan. Then let the group decide whether the reaction of the person-in-role represents an intangible payoff or cost. If the group is reluctant to use a role play approach, you could suggest a very brief brainstorming session whenever they are unsure of someone's reaction to a particular plan. Once you've gone through your list of people affected by the plan, you should find that you've identified the significant intangible payoffs and costs likely to result from the plan.*

EXAMPLE:

Replacing Your Old Car

A COST-PAYOFF PROBLEM:

To show how to identify and compare payoffs and costs let's work on a problem most of us have had: replacing an old car.

Once we've solved this one in terms of payoffs and costs, tangible and intangible, we should be ready to use the same approach to do a similar analysis of the alternatives for our workshop project.

ALTERNATIVES:

1. Buy a new car
2. Buy a used car
3. Lease a car

Assume that you've decided to replace your old car, and are trying to decide whether to buy a new car, lease a car, or buy a used car. To determine the relative advantage of these three alternatives, we need to first identify, and then compare their tangible and intangible payoffs and costs. On page 61 of the Workbook, the major tangible costs and payoffs are listed. What we're to do is to come up with a list of as many intangible payoffs and costs as we can.

What are the intangible

-PAYOFFS ?

-COSTS ?

To do this, let's divide into three groups of about equal size, with each group working on one of the alternatives.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Break the group up so that one group is assigned to "new car" a second to "lease car" and the third to "used car". If people are unclear about this assignment, you can give them some examples such as - a used car may break down, which will be an inconvenience when you have to be someplace on time - an intangible cost; a leased car has the advantage of not requiring the buying-selling hassle that accompanies car ownership - an intangible payoff. Set a time limit of 10-15 minutes. Ask someone in each group to make a copy of the group's list. If one group finishes before time limit is up, ask them to help the others work on their list. Remind them that they can use the device of making a list of those who would be affected by the choice of an alternative, or that they can use "Brainstorming."*

EXAMPLES:

DESIRABLE INTANGIBLE PAYOFFS:

- CAR HANDLES EASILY
- AVAILABLE TODAY
- COMFORTABLE
- LOOKS GOOD
- WILL PLEASE SPOUSE
- SAFE

COMPARING INTANGIBLE PAYOFFS: Although the intangible payoffs of different alternatives have no dollar amounts attached to them, there is a way to compare them.

BRAINSTORMING: First, the whole group should develop a list of intangible payoffs that you want to achieve when you replace your car. A sample of such a list is shown on the display page.

ADD THE INDIVIDUAL SCORES FOR

"CAR HANDLES EASILY"

7+4+5+6+7+7+6+3+7+6 = 58

AVERAGE THE SCORES

58÷10 = 5.8

THE AVERAGE SCORE IS: 5.8

DECIDE ON IMPORTANCE: Next, each member of the group privately decides how important each item on that list is, on a scale of "1" (least important) to "7" (most important). If someone thinks that each of these desirable intangible payoffs is "most important", he or she assigns a score of "7" to each payoff.

AVERAGE THE SCORES: Then, for each item, calculate the average of the scores given to it by the group members and round the average to one decimal place. This is shown in relation to the sample list. In this case, a hypothetical group of 10 people might have privately assigned scores of 7, 4, 5, 6, 7, 7, 6, 3, 7, 6 to the intangible payoff "handles easily" for a total of 58. Divided by 10, the average score is 5.8 for the importance of that payoff.

Comparing Intangible Payoffs

DESIRABLE INTANGIBLE PAYOFFS	AVERAGE SCORE	ALTERNATIVES		
		NEW CAR	USED CAR	LEASE CAR
HANDLES EASILY	5.8	+ 5.8	- 5.8	+ 5.8
AVAILABLE TODAY	5.0	- 5.0	+ 5.0	+ 5.0
COMFORTABLE	3.2	+ 3.2	- 3.2	+ 3.2
LOOKS GOOD	3.2	+ 3.2	0	+ 3.2
PLEASES SPOUSE	2.4	- 2.4	+ 2.4	- 2.4
IS SAFE	1.0	+ 1.0	- 1.0	+ 1.0
		5.8	2.6	15.8

Then, examine each of the three alternatives and decide as a group whether each will or will not provide each of the intangible payoffs on the list. If the group decides it will contribute to a particular payoff, that payoff's score is given as a plus to the alternative being examined. If it neither contributes nor detracts, a "zero" score is given; if it detracts, the value of the payoff is a minus for that alternative. You can refer to your lists of intangible payoffs and costs for each alternative when making these decisions. Assign to the alternative the plus scores, zero, and minuses for each of the payoffs.

Here's the entire solution. The hypothetical group decided that both "new car" and "lease car" would produce the intangible payoff "handles easily" so they gave both alternatives a "plus" 5.8 score. The used car, they decided, would detract from [illegible]ing this intangible payoff, that is, it might not handle easily, so they gave it a "minus" score (5.8). In effect, a minus score is the same as an intangible cost. Adding the colums indicated that the alternative "lease car" with a total score of 15.8 appeared likely to provide the highest "intangible payoffs."

IS THE BEST MIX

- LOWEST IN TANGIBLE COSTS ?
- HIGHEST IN INTANGIBLE PAYOFFS ?

IT DEPENDS...

You now have data that allows you to compare your alternatives. In the example of replacing your old car, you know the major tangible payoffs and costs; in addition, you know which alternative is likely to give you a mix of intangible payoffs and costs that is closest to what you want.

To avoid confusion at this point, let's refer to tangible costs as dollar costs, since most tangible costs can be expressed in dollar terms. The best alternative is the one that is lowest in dollar costs and highest in intangible payoffs. The poorest alternative is one that is just the opposite: highest in dollar costs, lowest in intangible payoffs. However, other combinations are possible, for example lowest in dollar costs but also lowest in intangible payoffs. And sometimes, an alternative within the highest dollar costs can look so attractive because of its high intangible payoffs that you decide to examine the high dollar costs to see if you can somehow cut them without changing the alternative so much that it won't work.

...COMPLETE DATA ON WHICH
TO BASE A DECISION...

Reference:

"LOCATING & ACQUIRING RESOURCES"
(a resource packet)

Unfortunately, this information does not make an automatic decision for you. But you now have fairly complete data to use when you make your choice of alternatives. And if one alternative looks best in terms of intangibles but you clearly lack the resources to select it, you may want to put some effort into locating and acquiring the resources. In that case, the resource packet entitled "Locating and Acquiring Resources" should prove helpful.

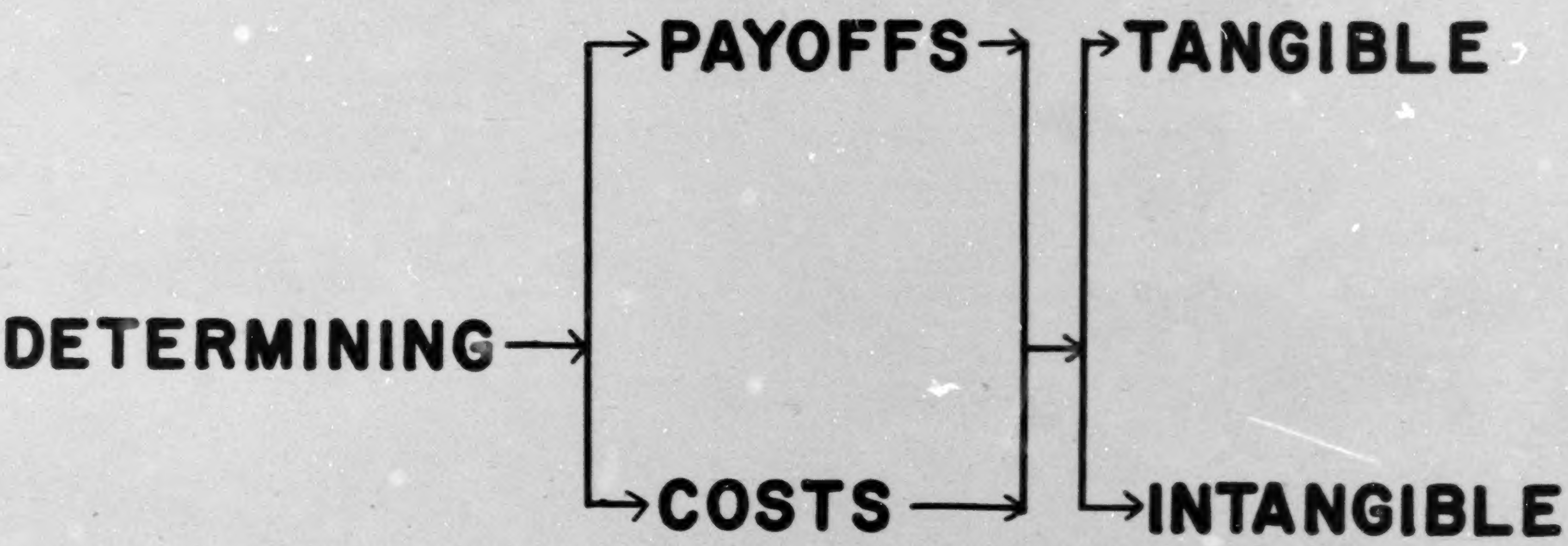
Compare Alternatives
for
The Workshop Project

Before our next session, we should compare the alternative ways to do our workshop project. We'll need that data by our next session of "Implementation" so we can move ahead with the project. Who was assigned that responsibility during our contracting session?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Make sure this assignment is set. If the person who is to do this appears to need help, recruit additional members from the group. Make clear that the assignment is to:*

1. *Get all tangible payoff and cost data.*
2. *Decide whether you want to involve staff members who are not workshop participants in selecting the most important intangible payoffs, and whether each alternative solution contributes to reaching the goal (a "plus" score), is neutral regarding the goal (a "zero" score) or detracts from reaching the goal (a "minus" score).*
3. *Compute the intangible "value" of each of the alternatives.*

other uses for:



DETERMINING

PAYOFFS

COSTS

TANGIBLE

INTANGIBLE

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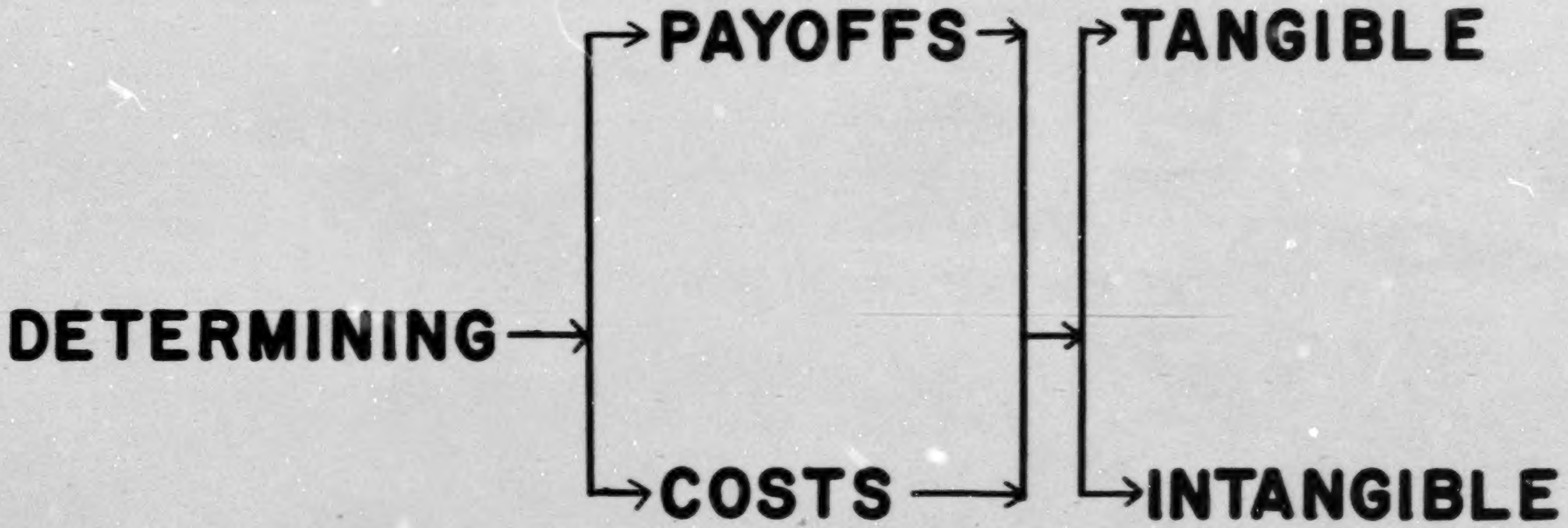
3. *Compute the intangible "value" of each of the alternatives.*

other uses for:



DETERMINING

PAYOFFS

COSTS

TANGIBLE

INTANGIBLE

Finally, we should take a few minutes to think about other uses of the approach covered in this chapter, either in relation to something we've seen done, or some way to use it on our jobs.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Examples are offered in the Workbook, prior to the summary of the chapter. When this discussion is over, end the session.*

CHAPTER VI

IMPLEMENTING THE BEST ALTERNATIVE

Directions for the Convenor:

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CHAPTER VI

IMPLEMENTING THE BEST ALTERNATIVE

CHAPTER VI

IMPLEMENTING THE BEST ALTERNATIVE

GOOD IMPLEMENTATION
IS
CRITICAL

INTRODUCTION: Now that the alternative with the best "relative advantage" has been selected we're ready to go to work on it. It's been said that a poor plan, well executed, is better than a good plan poorly executed. From this point of view, good implementation is critical to the successful completion of a project. Good ideas have sometimes failed because insufficient effort was given to all of the details necessary to make them work.

Objectives:

Identify - Organize - Manage

Systems

People

Resources

Contingencies

of any project

OBJECTIVES: The techniques contained in this chapter should help us to identify, organize, and manage four factors that are essential to the success of a project. These are:

1. graphic systems that help in the planning and control of a project.
2. the personnel who will be involved.
3. the resources needed to carry it out.
4. the contingencies we may have to face.

Let's take these factors, one at a time.

GRAPHIC SYSTEMS

FLOW-CHARTING
TIME-TASK CHARTING
P.E.R.T.

SYSTEMS:

First, graphic systems. Graphic systems are picture-like methods used to monitor and control the planning and implementation of a project.

There are many graphic system approaches to planning, such as flow charting, time-task chartig, and the Program Evaluation and Review Technique called PERT. These approaches provide an orderly process for thinking about the development of a program. The advantage in using them is that they create a visual model of the project which makes it easier to identify errors in planning, as well as important steps that may have been left out.

Basic Rules For Charting:

1. Keep it simple.
2. Make it complete.
3. Use easily recognizable symbols.
4. Follow a logical sequence.

BASIC RULES
FOR CHARTING:

A person doesn't have to be a system analyst to use charts. However, there are some basic rules to be followed:

First, keep the chart as simple as possible.

Second, make sure the chart is complete.

Third, use easily recognizable symbols.

And last, make sure the chart follows a logical sequence.

Here are some charts that could be useful in planning a project.

SYSTEMS FLOW CHART

Sequential Relationship of Tasks

Left to Right / Top to Bottom

FLOW CHART: The first charting method is called the "Systems Flow Chart." A sample chart is contained on page 66 of the Workbook. Turn to the chart and look it over; then we'll discuss it.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to study the chart before continuing to read.*

A flow chart is used to illustrate an operation or a portion of an operation by graphically representing the logical sequence of tasks. This chart represents a simplified version of the steps in an intake process.

Systems Flow charts are normally drawn from left to right and from top to bottom on the page. Let's see if this is clear. Each one of you should privately draw a flow chart depicting the process of our Workshop project to date, and whatever you think will happen during the rest of the project. Draw this chart on page 67 of our Workbook and then we'll compare them.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the group wants, this could be done as a group. You should save the flow chart on which you all agree, as a way of checking your progress on the project, as well as your accuracy in depicting its flow. You may want to point out the standard flow chart procedures that are depicted in the box on the lower right hand corner of the page. As indicated, the "operational loop indicator" refers to going back to an earlier point in the process ("applicant corrects error" to "applicant gives form to receptionist") and then continuing on through the process.*

TIME-TASK CHART

...To meet a deadline...

TIME-TASK CHART: An example of the next type of chart, a "Time-Task" chart, is on page 68 of the Workbook. Take a minute or so to look at the chart before we discuss it.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group a few minutes to study the chart.*

The time-task chart simply shows the relationship between project tasks, and the times by which they must be completed to meet the deadline. Let's see if this is clear.

QUESTIONS: Look at the fourth task, "Circulate format ideas to staff." When are the format ideas due to be sent to the staff? (*Answer: Monday of the 4th week.*)

How much time will the staff have to consider the format ideas and make their recommendations? (*Answer: approximately one week.*)

When are the staff recommendations due back? (*Answer: Friday of the 4th week.*)

The time-task chart helps to set the time lines for a project, so that it can be monitored or managed, and a completion date can be met. Note that in order to create such a chart, you first break the project into its component tasks.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group construct a Time-Task chart of the Workshop project, just as they did a flow chart of the project.*

PREMISES CHART

Effects of physical layout

PREMISES CHART: The last chart we'll discuss is the "Premises" chart, like the sample on page 69 of the Workbook. Take a minute or so to look at it, then we'll discuss it.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group a minute or so to look at the chart before continuing.*

The "premises" chart graphically illustrates the physical layout of a work area. It can be used to study the movement of people in relation to other people, or to equipment, or to space in that area.

Simple things, such as where a file cabinet is placed, the location of desks, the distances between people, and so froth, can have a powerful effect on the way in which people do their work. For instance, let's consider the effect of the physical lay-out of our office on us.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *You may want to take a few minutes on this one. The group might want to discuss how lay-out affects the way work gets done, or affects communication between people, etc. If they decide to draw a premises chart, encourage people to do rough sketches - make it clear that beautiful drawings are unnecessary. Again, emphasis should be placed on the potential usefulness of such charts to the success of the group's project.*

PERT: An interesting system for managing complex projects is called PERT. PERT is an acronym which stands for "Program Evaluation Review Technique." It's too complicated to describe here. An excellent source book on this subject is called, A Programmed Introduction to PERT, New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1963. Written in the form of a programmed instruction booklet it will teach you all you need to know to use PERT for complicated projects.

Getting the right people in the right job.

INTEREST

KNOWLEDGE

SKILLS

TIME

PEOPLE: The next area of concern in regard to implementation is getting the right people for the right job. When we're trying to decide who to select to be responsible for different parts of a project, attention should be given to staff members' interests, knowledge, skills, and available time.

INTEREST: We should make sure that the people responsible for implementing a project are interested in it. Most of us dislike certain jobs, like changing a flat tire, or washing dishes. So we put forth just enough effort to get the job done. If we really want a project to succeed, we want people to work on it who are interested in the tasks that must be done to complete the project.

DISCUSSION QUESTION: Let's develop a list of different ways to identify persons who might be interested in implementing a project.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to discuss this question before continuing. Some possible answers to the question might be:*

1. *Ask for volunteers.*
2. *Ask persons who have hobbies similar to the required task.*
3. *Make a list of tasks to be done, and ask staff to nominate one another to do each, based on their knowledge of each other's interests.*

Move on when the group has proposed 3-5 good ideas.

PEOPLE

interest
KNOWLEDGE
SKILLS
time

KNOWLEDGE: It's also important that the person or persons who are going to work on the project have the basic knowledge necessary to get the tasks completed.

How could we find out if a person has the necessary knowledge to work on a job?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Actively encourage the group to discuss the question before continuing. Possible answers to the question might include the following:*

1. *Look at the courses an individual has taken in school.*
2. *Look at the jobs a person has had.*
3. *Select someone who has been involved in the planning aspects of the project.*
4. *Use what is known about an individual's knowledge of similar work tasks.*

Allow for a few minutes of group discussion, then continue.

SKILLS: Skills refer to the ability to use the practical techniques required to perform a task acceptably. There is a difference between begin able to describe how to use a typewriter, and being able to type a letter with no mistakes, within a given time.

Both knowledge and skills are important. If there's no one available with the knowledge and skills necessary for a project, we may have to provide a way for someone to acquire the knowledge and skills. In the case of our own project, if we all lack the necessary knowledge or skills, we may need training. In that case, we might decide to make use of Chapter VI-A, on "Training."

PEOPLE

interest

knowledge

skills

TIME

TIME: Time is the last factor to consider in selecting the right individual to do a certain job. Some ideas we might consider about time are:

1. Does the person have the time?
2. Can we change some priorities to make time?
3. Will we have to reassign some of the person's responsibilities to other staff members, to make time?

REVIEW: To summarize, we've discussed the importance of interest, knowledge, skills, and time when selecting someone to implement a project. Of course it's not always a simple "yes" or "no" when considering a particular person's qualifications in these areas. Each possible person may have more or less interest, knowledge, skill, or time, than someone else. All of these qualifications have to be put together when making a decision.

We should also consider the task: it may dictate that one factor is more important than another. If we were going to send a man to outer space, an astronaut with the skills and knowledge for operating a spacecraft would be a better selection than someone who really wants to make the trip and has the time to go, but who doesn't know anything about space flight.

PEOPLE:

1. ? ?
2. ? ?
3. ? ?
4. ? ?

EXERCISE: Let's see if this is clear. Turn to the practice exercise on the first page of Chapter VI in the Workbook. The problem is to select the best of four candidates to place in charge of developing an office newsletter.

Using the information contained on the Personnel Selection Worksheet (page 71), we should each write our answer to the questions on page 70. When we've finished answering the questions we'll discuss them. Remember to keep in mind the task of developing an office newsletter as you answer the questions.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow sufficient time for everyone to complete the exercise, then ask for a volunteer to read a question and his or her answer. Encourage discussion by asking questions after each answer, such as:*

1. *How did you decide on that answer?*
2. *Does anyone have another answer?*

Also the exercise is fairly simple in order to make the point clearly. The group may want to consider additions to this procedure. For example instead of "yes" or "no" on each candidate, degrees of qualification such as "Very Qualified," "Moderately Qualified," "Not too Qualified," and "Not at all Qualified" might be used.

CORRECT ANSWERS FOR THE EXERCISE: *1) Hand 2) Hank 3) Mara 4) Kathy 5) Mara and Kathy 6) Kathy 7) Because she has the time to do the jobs. These answers are in the Workbook on page 72.*

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *When the discussion is finished, go on to the next page.*

Use the information, but also

USE YOUR JUDGMENT

USE JUDGEMENT TOO: This method of comparing the qualifications of different individuals is simply a tool for organizing information to make a personnel decision. The answers to questions #5 and #6 were based on an assumption that each of the qualification - that is, interest, knowledge, skill, and time - were of equal importance for the task given. However, this may not always be the case, and we have to use judgement when making a final decision.

For example, if the nature of the task was changed to something scientific such as programming a computer job bank, then "knowledge" and "skill" would have much more weight than "time" would in making the decision.

With this new task of "programming a computer job bank" Mara may have been the best choice based on the greater extent of her skills in this highly technical area.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Before continuing, check with the group to determine whether or not some personnel decisions should be made on the group's project. If so, the group should either make them now, using the procedure just covered, or if that's not possible at this time, have the group get the process of selection started.*

WHOSE RESPONSIBILITY

?

WHOSE AUTHORITY

?

ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT AUTHORITY:

Drawing a planning chart and then selecting people to do certain tasks is only half the story. When someone is assigned the responsibility for implementing a project, that person must also be given the necessary authority to get the job done.

There are at least three ways to make sure this is accomplished without causing unnecessary conflicts.

First, the manager or director may delegate decision-making authority to an individual or a staff group until the end of the project.

Second, the staff may agree to delegate decision-making authority to one or more staff members and review their decisions from time to time.

Third, the staff as a whole may retain the authority to make decisions on all project plans and implementation.

Are there any other ways to do this?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *See if there are any such ideas before going on to the next page. For instance, authority is handled very differently in social clubs, professional associations, glee clubs, athletic teams, or any other organizations with which members are familiar. You might also suggest that the group consider why different organizations delegate authority in different ways, and what this implies in terms of the program in which they work.*

CRITERIA:

1. EFFICIENCY
2. QUALITY
3. COMMITTMENT

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS CONCERNING DECISION-MAKING:

When selecting the most effective approach to the delegation of authority, consideration should be given to:

- the efficiency of the decision-making process;
- the quality of the decisions made;
- staff commitment to the decision;
- and finally, the locus of responsibility in fiscal and/or legal terms.

First, the fewer persons involved in making a decision, the greater the efficiency of the process.

Second, small groups often make decisions of better quality than are made by any individual group member. We discussed this idea in our first exercise in Chapter I on Contracting. Third, individuals tend to have a greater commitment to the implementation of a decision when they have participated in making that decision. Finally, persons who are accountable for a program's success or failures are understandably reluctant to delegate authority if they are held responsible for results.

DISCUSSION QUESTION:

What does the interplay of these four factors - efficiency of the process, quality of decisions, staff commitment and locus of responsibility - for us, in relation to the group's project?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Allow for discussion before continuing. Again, the discussion could cover some general considerations, but if there are specific decisions or actions to be taken in relation to the group's project, they should be done now, or the group should arrange to have them done. In other words, who will do what, by when, in order to get the authority issue settled for the project.

Negotiate and define the

LIMITS

of that

AUTHORITY !

DEFINE LIMITS OF AUTHORITY: Regardless of which approach we take to the delegation of authority, we should make sure that the limits of the authority are well defined and understood. If necessary, authority decisions could be negotiated very much as we negotiated our group contract, in Chapter I.

So far we've covered the use of different charts to plan and monitor a project, the selection of personnel in relation to factors of interest, knowledge, skill and available time, and the delegation of authority, in relation to efficiency, quality, commitment and responsibility.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Before proceeding, the group may want to consider whether the work they have done in each separate section of this Chapter suggests the need to change any of their work on the group's project in the other sections of this Chapter. For example, should any of their charts be changed in relation to what's been decided about personnel or the delegation of authority? Move on after this has been discussed.*

RESOURCES

EQUIPMENT
SUPPLIES
FACILITIES

IDENTIFY NEEDS

EQUIPMENT, SUPPLIES, AND FACILITIES: If the implementation of a project is going to require equipment, supplies or facilities, it's necessary to identify the items needed, arrange to get them, and manage their use.

IDENTIFYING NEEDS: Let's begin with the first step: identifying needs. How do we know what will be needed to get a project going? We can begin by using "Brainstorming."

So let's "Brainstorm" a list of the equipment, supplies, and facilities needed for the project. Then we can cluster the ideas under general headings and eliminate duplicate or obviously inappropriate ideas.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Conduct a "Brainstorming" session with the group as outlined in Chapter II and determine the equipment, supply, and facility needs to implement the project. When the "Brainstorming" is complete, have the group use their brainstormed list to complete the Physical Resources Planning guide contained on page 73 of the Workbook. This means deciding whether the items on the list go under "Equipment," "Supplies," or "Facilities," then determining what's on hand and what isn't and making plans to procure what's missing. If you can't figure out how to get some items, go to the next page. If that's not a problem, skip the next page and go on to the page that follows (p. 20). If you do go directly to page 20, you should call the group's attention to the resource packet on "Resources" which is described on page 19: it might come in handy in the future.*

We don't have it --

How can we find it ?

Who will get it ?

We seem to have some items for which we have not identified a resource.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Ask for volunteers to research these items carefully and attempt to discover a potential resource and report back to the group at the next Workshop session. Suggest that they look at the Resource Packet on "Resources": it may prove helpful. Make sure that you have one or more volunteers to do this before going on. As the Workbook indicates, some items may have to be purchased, but use this as a last resort, on the assumption they can be found somewhere, somehow, unless the time and effort required to get the resource costs more than simply purchasing it. When you have finished this discussion, go on to the next page.*

Contingency Management
is having
a spare tire,
a car jack, and
a lug wrench
in case of a flat tire.

CONTINGENCY MANAGEMENT: No matter how much planning we do, unforeseen events will occur for which we're unprepared. The term "contingency management" means planning ahead to avert disaster. The possible barriers to the success of a project are identified in advance, and plans are developed to deal with those barriers should they arise. For example, having a spare tire, jack and lug nut wrench in the trunk of a car is a contingency plan against the possibility of a flat tire.

In "contingency management" we do the following:

First, develop a list of all of the possible barriers to the success of a project.

Next, we develop alternative plans for dealing with each barriers: "Brainstorming" would be one way of doing this.

Finally, we implement the contingency plans if and when the barriers are encountered.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Let's make a list of possible contingencies that our project might face. Once you have a list, develop plans to deal with at least 2 or 3 of the most probably contingencies. Use your judgement here - if you have enough time, go through as many of the items on the list as you can.*

What are some other uses ?

- Charts
- Personnel selection
- Resource location
- Contingency management

SUMMARY: In summary, this segment of LODI has indicated that the successful implementation of a project requires systematic ways of identifiying, organizing, and managing people, resources, and contingencies.

In this chapter, we've discussed a number of management techniques that could be used apart from a group project. Has anybody had some experience with any of these that they'd like to share - or could you think of some ways that these techniques might be useful to you?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Some ideas are suggested on page 74 of the Workbook.*

Decisions, Decisions...

NEXT

"Training" or "Evaluation"??

At this point, we have a decision to make: if our project requires that staff do something new, or do something "old," but in a new way, they may need to be trained to handle it. In that case, the next chapter we'd move to would be the one on "Training," which is Chapter VI-A. A summary of the content in VI-A can be found on page 89 of the Workbook. However, if we're ready to move on to the implementation of our project without a session on training and we are sure that all of the necessary steps involved in implementing the project are going to be taken care of, our next Workshop session would be the one on "Evaluation." So, which should it be?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Make sure a decision is made about the session on Training; also see that Workshop group members are assigned specific responsibilities for developing implementation plans. Emphasize that all implementation tasks should be underway by the next session.*

CHAPTER VI-A

TRAINING

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER VI-A

TRAINING

CHAPTER VI-A

TRAINING

TRAINING

- Do something new...

- Do something old in a
  new way...

TRAINING - WHEN?: Projects that require staff training are those in which the staff must learn to do something new, or those in which the staff must learn to do something they've been doing but in a new and better way.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *It may be that the group elected to go through this chapter out of interest, rather than need. If so, you should read the wording that follows.*

The decision to go through this optional section of the Workshop indicates that we believe our project won't work well enough without training. So here are the objectives of this chapter.

Objectives:

WE SHOULD BE ABLE TO:

1. Select the most effective and efficient ways of teaching something...
2. Develop a plan for using these teaching procedures...

OBJECTIVES: 1. As a result of completing this chapter, we should be able to select the most effective and most efficient ways of teaching something to staff, and;

2. We should be able to develop a plan for using these teaching procedures so that training participants will achieve the learning objectives that have been established.

We will not attempt to cover everything there is to know about training. For example, we won't cover theories of learning, or instruction in how to use the teaching procedures selected, because that would make the chapter too long.

LODI is a TRAINING process, so what are the major steps in LODI ?

This Workshop uses a training process: as such, it provides an example of the basic steps in training. As a quick review, write down the major steps of the Workshop on page 80 of the Workbook. Chapter headings will do.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Wait until everyone has completed a list, then ask for volunteers to read their lists. Help the group make up a master list. When they're through, move on. Use the list below to supplement or complete the list people were able to make up from memory. It's a translation of the LODI framework into training terms. To make sure this is clear, you could ask different group members to provide examples of each step in relation to training they've had.*

CONTRACT - *an agreement between trainer and trainees, (and among the trainees themselves) about participation in the process of training. This is a negotiated agreement about roles in training and goals of training, and can be renegotiated at any time.*

NEED - *using techniques such as "Brainstorming" and 'Delphi," trainers and trainees determine what it is that the trainees want to learn or believe they should learn.*

GOALS - *statements of need are translated into specific instructional goals. These goals describe what it is that trainees should learn to do, and provide the basis for selecting training procedures.*

ALTERNATIVES - *a number of instructional procedures and media that are likely to achieve the goals are considered and those with the best relative advantage are selected.*

IMPLEMENTATION - *decisions about the management of training are made, including such things as: who will do the training, and who will be trained; what events will have to managed and how, in order for the training to be done on schedule; what contingencies are likely to arise, how they should be handled, and so forth.*

EVALUATION - *we haven't covered this yet: it's the topic of the next chapter. In "Evaluation" a way of measuring the degree to which trainees have achieved instructional objectives is developed. Using the results of this measurement, anything else that should be done about the original need can be determined.*

Content:

1. Basic Principles of Training
2. Guidelines for Selecting Procedures
3. Discription of Different Procedures
4. A Training Problem to be Solved

CHAPTER OUTLINE:

This chapter on training consists of 4 parts:

First, the basic principles used in planning a training program will be described;

Second, guidelines for selecting training procedures will be presented;

Third, a description of different training procedures will be given, with some "do's" and "don'ts" about each method;

Finally, we will solve a training problem that involves the selection of training methods, and planning for their use.

Start by teaching from

a familiar example.

A FAMILIAR EXAMPLE:

When you want to teach something new to people, it helps to start with a familiar example, and an example that is not likely to stir up a work-related controversy. To demonstrate, we're going to be asked to consider a number of training principles in relation to a familiar training problem: learning to drive a car. Let's begin by assuming that we're asked to start with the following instructional objective:

OBJECTIVE: By the end of training, the trainee (a non-driver) will be able to drive a car to any destination within 50 miles of a starting point, following the rules of safe driving, and arriving (without accident) within a reasonable period of time.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVE:

By the end of training, the trainee (a non-driver) will be able to drive a car to any destination within 50 miles of a starting point, following the rules of safe driving, and arriving (without accident) within a reasonable period of time. (We'll assume that some experienced drivers have worked out what is meant by "a reasonable period of time" for getting to this destination by the most direct route.)

We will assume that the trainee wants to learn how to drive, but generally it's not wise to assume that anyone wants to learn something, especially when they are told that they must learn it. Techniques like Delphi should be used to find out how people perceive their own training needs. We'll also assume that specific training goals have been developed based on these needs that make clear what the trainees should be able to do as a result of training. Unless the trainer has such specific goals in mind, the principles of training that we're about to cover have little meaning.

TRAINING PRINCIPLE NO. 1

Aim For Realism...

Here's the first principle of training. I'll read a description of what's meant, then give an example of the principle, in action. After that I'll read descriptions of other principles and ask you to supply the examples.

Principle #1 is Aim for Realism.

In general, a training situation should be as much like the performance situation as possible. Here's an example of this principle in action.

When teaching someone to drive, you'd get better results from a driving simulator than from using a lecture and discussion approach. But a simulator is not as good as putting the trainee in a real car that is moving in traffic. Of course, you might start with a lecture, go to a simulator, and then go to a real car, depending on what the trainee already can do. But There has to be experience in a real car at some point, if you want the trainee to end up being able to drive. Since we're talking about training in order to achieve the goals of the group's project, let's now develop some ways of "aiming for realism" that should be built into our training.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow time to discuss this point, relying on the group to determine whether or not the examples are appropriate. Make sure that someone keeps a record of the group's examples.*

TRAINING PRINCIPLE NO. 2

Keep It Interesting...

Principle #2 is Keep it Interesting.

A training situation should be designed to hold the attention of each trainee throughout the session. How can driver training be made interesting?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *There are several ways to make driver training interesting. Encourage the expression of several ideas. When people run out of ideas, tell the group that they can check their ideas against the ideas on page 85 of their Workbook.*

Now let's think about our project. How could we make this training interesting?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Again, make sure notes of the group's ideas are kept.*

TRAINING PRINCIPLE NO. 3

Take It Apart...

Principle #3 is Take is Apart.

If what is to be learned is fairly complicated, break it up and teach one activity or task at a time: then, before the training ends, be sure to help the trainee put all of the parts together, correctly. OK, how could driver training be taken apart?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *(Discussion: then check page 85 and 86 of the Workbook.)*

Would it be necessary or useful to take apart what people need to learn for our project?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If everyone agrees that the answer is "no" go on. If, however, the group decides that the activity or task should be broken up in order to achieve effective learning, have them decide how they would do it in relation to the group's project.*

TRAINING PRINCIPLE NO. 4

1. Describe
2. Demonstrate
3. Practice
4. Feedback
5. Change the situation

Principle #4 is Teach Step-by-Step

Training should proceed in the following, step-by-step fashion:

1. describe what is to be learned.
2. demonstrate it.
3. give each trainee as much opportunity as possible to practice it.
4. give each trainee as much positive feedback as possible about the quality of his or her practice.
5. change the learning situation a bit so that the trainee will have a chance to practice what he or she is learning, but under different conditions.

Let's start with #1 and work our way through to #5, giving some examples for each step in relation to driver training.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *(Discussion - if you want to check the group's answer, refer to pages 86 and 87 of the Workbook).*

First: how and what would you tell a driver trainee about what is to be learned?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group continue through step 5 in relation to driver training. Then get them to repeat the process in relation to the group's project. Be sure that the ideas on the project are written down.*

REVIEW:

Aim for realism

Keep it interesting

Take it apart

Teach step-by-step

To review then, four basic principles that are used in planning a training program are: "Aim for Realism," "Keep it Interesting," "Take it Apart," and "Teach Step-by-Step." Any questions? Are there other principles that should be added?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Pause for discussion. Members may introduce other "basic principles." If the group agrees to them, they can accept the additional principles and discuss how to implement them in relation to driver training and then with reference to the group's project. Point out to the group that LODI includes only the most important principles, but certainly not all of them. For example, here are three other principles you could mention, if they are not brought out in group discussion:*

1) Train in the place where the training is to be used.

2) Train together those people who will have to work together or with whom they will have to coordinate their activities.

3) Training should include intellectual understanding of the task or process, practice and experience and rewards for good performance.

RULES FOR SELECTING TRAINING PROCEDURES:

1. Use as few as possible.
2. Go from "symbolic" to "experiential" procedures.

SELECTION OF TRAINING PROCEDURES: Now we'll look at the selection of training procedures. In a minute we're going to turn to a list of instructional media and teaching methods, followed by examples, with a brief discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of each. The two rules for selecting procedures are:

1) Use as few procedures as possible to teach the trainee to perform acceptably, and;
2) If you're going to use more than one procedure, move from the symbolic to the direct experience. By "sumbolic" is meant anything that stands for or takes the place of direct experience such as the written word, pictures or charts, motion pictures, and so forth. In the list on pages 78 and 79 of the Workbook, that would mean moving from the procedures with the lower numbers to the procedures with the higher numbers. Take a few minutes to read those two pages.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *You can let people read to themselves, or have members take turns reading aloud all that's written about one procedure, with questions and comments on each as you go along. That's up to you and the group. Don't move to work on the problem until you're sure everyone's finished reading and all questions have been discussed.*

On page 81 you'll find an example that discusses the training procedures that could be used in a driver training program. Look at the example, compare it with the chart, and then let's see if there are any questions or comments before moving on to the final training problem.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Give people time to read the example, before moving on. Ask if there are any questions or comments. If there are none, you might want to have one or two of your own ready. For example: "How many media are needed to teach something well?" or "Are some media or procedures better for certain kinds of training than other kinds?" or ask them to discuss their most and least favorite media, giving the reasons for their preferences.*

THREE TRAINING PROBLEMS:

Which procedure ? Why ?

What order ? Why ?

For the sake of practice, we're going to work on some training problems. For each, assume that we've been assigned the job of planning training situations that will help trainees achieve the instructional objective for each situation. We are to answer these questions:

- Which training procedure or procedures from the list in the Workbook would we use?
- Why would we use them?
- In what order would we use those procedures?
- Why use this particular order?

Any questions?

(Pause - make sure it's clear before going on.)

Problem #1.

Here's the first objective.

Those persons who are responsible for training [illegible]ers will be able to identify correctly the meaning and use of all of the symbols on a flow chart of a training project. Given that objective, let's answer the first question: which procedures from the list would we use?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *At this point, you can decide how to proceed: group discussion, or have each member write it out first in his or her Workbook, (p. 82) then discuss. We think the second way is better, since it requires each person to do his or her own thinking first, but you know your group best, so use the procedure that you think will be most effective. Move on to the next problem when there is pretty good agreement about training procedures and the order of procedures for this one. When they're finished with all three objectives they can compare their answers with those on page 88 of the Workbook. Discuss the answers by referring to the principles presented. For example, "How does that procedure fit with the procedure of "Aim for Realism," "Make it Interesting," etc?*

THREE TRAINING PROBLEMS:

Which procedure ? Why ?

What order ? Why ?

Problem #2.

Here's another objective:

Every counselor will be able to complete specific agency forms completely and correctly.

(Pause - let them suggest the relevant forms from the agency - then let them complete, discuss and check their answers.)

Finally, Problem #3.

Here's the objective:

All clerical personnel will be able to "trouble-shoot" the new office copier so that clear copies can be made. In addition, they will be able to tell when a repairman should be called, and when they can fix it themselves.

(Pause - let them complete, discuss, and check their answers.)

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *At this point, the group should make plans for its own training session(s) using the content covered in any of the preceding chapters that's relevant.*

CONCLUSION: Is The Training

Like the real thing ?

Interesting ?

Logically broken apart ?

Taught step-by-step ?

Least procedures possible ?

Symbols to experience ?

In conclusion, when planning a training session, you should ask yourself the followinquestions:

REALISTIC: 1. Have I thought of ways to make the training situation as similar to the real performance situation as possible?

INTERESTING: 2. Are some aspects of the training situation likely to be novel and rewarding enough to hold each trainee's interest during the session? And will each trainee see the relationship between the training activity, the instructional objective, and his job?

BREAK IT APART: 3. Is the performance to be learned too complicated to be learned all at once? If so, have I broken it up logically, without splintering the subject into too many pieces? And have I developed a plan to help the trainees to put the pieces together into a smooth performance once they've mastered each of the pieces?

STEP-BY-STEP: 4. Is the trainee going to be helped to proceed from a description of what is to be learned to a demonstration, then to practice with feedback, and finally to practice under different conditions?

SELECTION: 5. Finally, in selecting particular training procedures have I planned to:

a) used the smallest number of procedures that will be effective, and;
b) gone from the symbolic to experiential procedures?

If you can answer "yes" to each of these questions, you've planned well for your training program. Now we're ready to go on to the next session: it deals with evaluation, the process by which we can tell whether or not our project (or a staff training program) is working.

CHAPTER VII

EVALUATION

Directions for the Convenor:

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2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
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4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER VII

EVALUATION

CHAPTER VII

EVALUATION

Did the project accomplish

what it was supposed

to accomplish ?

INTRODUCTION: How can we tell if a project has been effective? To answer this question, we need to be able to find out if it accomplished what we wanted it to accomplish.

This session will present three practical methods for doing that.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Be sure to check the description of the practice exercise, starting on page 27, before starting this session, since you will need to come to this session with several diagrams, prepared by you, prior to the session, 2 blank sheets of paper for each participant, and a watch.*

Objectives:

- Decide on the best method
- Measure the results
- Determine the degree of success

OBJECTIVES: When we have finished this chapter we should be able to:

1. Decide which of three methods would work best for evaluating a specific project;
2. Measure the results of a project, using one of the three methods, and
3. Determine the degree to which a project is a success and should be continued.

THREE METHODS:

Objectives to Results

Time Intervals

Comparison Group

THREE METHODS:

There are three methods of evaluation that, taken together, should cover just about any kind of LODI project:

- in the first, you compare goals to results;
- in the second, you compare results at particular time intervals;
- in the last, you compare people who were affected by the project with some people who were not, to see if the project made any difference.

PRESENTATION FORMAT:

We'll use the same outline for each method:

- first, one of the methods will be described;
- then, the situations in which the method could be used will be identified;
- third, the advantages and disadvantages of the method will be discussed;
- and last will be an example of how to use the method.

Then we'll go on to the next method and follow the same four steps.

COMPARING OBJECTIVES TO RESULTS

USE WHEN

THE PROJECT IS SIMPLE

NO INDEPTH EVALUATION IS REQUIRED

ADVANTAGES

SIMPLE—INEXPENSIVE—TAKES LITTLE TIME

DISADVANTAGES

NO FEEDBACK ON SIGNIFICANCE OF OBJECTIVE

NO CONTROL OVER OTHER FACTORS

NO COMPARISON TO ANOTHER APPROACH

OBJECTIVES/
RESULTS
METHODS:

In the method called "Comparing Goals to Results" we compare our goal - that is, what we hoped to achieve, with our result - that is, what actually happened.

SITUATIONS:

This is a good method for relatively simple projects, when there's no requirement to provice an in-depth statistical justification of the project.

ADVANTAGES:

The advantages of this method are that it's simple to use, inexpensive and requires very little time.

DISADVANTAGES:

The disadvantages of this method are:

First, it doesn't compare the results with any other approach. It's entirely possible that we could have done nothing and achieved the same results.

And second, it doesn't let us know whether factors that were not a part of the project may have affected the results. In the following example, the importance of these advantages and disadvantages will become clear.

Example:

STAFF	AT WORK	AT MEETING
	10	10

AT MEETING	ON TIME	LATE
	10	-0-

EXAMPLE: Assume that we're talking about an office in which many staff have been arriving late to work. This has made it impossible to schedule staff meetings in the morning, the best time for such meetings.

The project goal is as follows: no staff member present for the day's work will be more than five minutes late to a morning staff meeting held on that day. Assume that the project simply involves sending a memo to each staff member stating this goal, noting the high frequency of late arrivals to meetings, and explaining why it is important to comply with this request.

At a staff meeting held two weeks later, the daily sign-in sheet indicates that ten staff members are present for work that day, and all ten are at the staff meeting by nine o'clock, the time the meeting is scheduled to begin.

DISCUSSION QUESTION: Would you say that the goal was achieved?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Ask the group to answer the question before proceeding.*

ANSWER: The answer - of course - is, "yes." Ten staff members were present for work that day; the same ten staff members were present for the meeting; and everyone arrived before five minutes after nine.

What affected the staff's behavior:

- The memo ?
- The speaker ?
- A breakfast meeting ?

DISCUSSION QUESTION: What effect did the memo have on staff members being on time?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group discuss the answer before proceeding. If they get the correct answer (given below) agree with them by starting the next sentence with the word "Right." If they don't, say, "Well, the correct answer is," and then read:*

ANSWER: We really don't know for sure that it was the memo that produced the results we observed.

Now, suppose there had been a federal official as guest speaker for the meeting and the meeting was at a restaurant where breakfast was served.

DISCUSSION QUESTION: What produced the on-time attendance at the meeting: the memo; the guest speaker; or the idea of combining the meeting with breakfast?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group answer before proceeding.*

Obviously, there's no way of knowing which of the three factors caused the on-time attendance behaviors.

Example:

staff	work	meeting
	10	10
arrived	late	on time
	1	9

DISCUSSION QUESTION: Now, let's change the result, and have one person out of the 10 arrive at seven minutes after nine. Was the goal achieved?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Ask the group to discuss the question before proceeding. If you receive a simple "no" answer ask the group "why" they think that is the answer.*

ANSWER: The answer - of course - is "no." That is another limitation of this method. The answer can only be "yes" or "no." Even if they went from everyone being late at the last staff meeting to only one person late for this staff meeting, the answer would still be "no," as far as achieving the 100% on-time goal is concerned. They may have shown vast improvement, but the 100% on-time goal wasn't achieved. So if this method were used strictly, it wouldn't reflect how much was actually accomplished.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If members question the reality of a "100% on-time" goal, you can point out that 100% was chosen because it is precise. Obviously, you can also decide on a different percent of improvement as your goal. The point is that if you don't achieve whatever precise goal you set, this method of evaluation doesn't tell you why you did or didn't achieve your goal - it only tells you* if *you did or did not make it. If you've used a precise measure, you can also measure the degree of success you achieved, but again, not why you achieved it.*

SUMMARY— OBJECTIVES / RESULTS

Easy and inexpensive

Only a "YES" or "NO" answer

No accounting for other factors

No comparison with previous performance

SUMMARY GOAL/ RESULTS:

To summarize, "Comparing Goals to Results" is an inexpensive method of evaluation and doesn't require a lot of time. It's quite simple to do, and is probably the best method to use for short term, relatively uncomplicated projects. However, it does have the limitation of giving only a "yes" or "no" answer, that is, the goal was or was not achieved. We also can't tell from the evaluation if it was the project that was responsible for the result. Finally, it diesn't give us a comparison with past performance, so we can't tell if the goal we picked was significant.

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Ask the group to identify some examples from their work in which this method is currently used. Ask them to consider these examples in relation to the advantages and disadvantages of this method. In other words, when they use this method of evaluation is it inexpensive, requiring little time and easy to do? Does it have the disadvantages of only giving a "yes" or "no" answer, and making it impossible to determine what specific factor produced the result?

MOVING ON:

Before deciding whether this is the method to use in evaluating our project, let's study the other two methods.

THE TIME-INTERVAL METHOD

Advantages:

- PROVIDES "BASELINE" FOR MEASURING CHANGE
- SIMPLE AND INEXPENSIVE

Disadvantages:

- DOESN'T ACCOUNT FOR OTHER FACTORS
- TAKES TIME
- REQUIRES RECORDS

TIME-INTERVAL COMPARISON:

The second method is called the "Time-Interval Comparison." In this method, specific information is recorded at the same intervals of time before and after the implementation of a project. Then the "before" and "after" information is compared. The time interval chosen can vary according to the task being evaluated. For example, if we were comparing payroll errors before and after a project designed to eliminate such errors, and we paid our staff every week, the interval would be one week: that is, we'd compare the number of errors for several weeks, before the project, with the number of errors for several weeks after. If we paid bi-weekly, our interval would be in units of two weeks, and so on.

ADVANTAGES:

This method has the following advantages: it's simple, inexpensive, and gives us information about what was happening before the implementation of the project. This provides a significant check for the objective, by providing a baseline against which to measure change.

DISADVANTAGES:

A disadvantage is that it does not account for other factors which may have influenced the results. As we discussed in the example of the staff meeting and the memo vs. the guest speaker and the staff breakfast, we couldn't be sure that it was the project that caused the result. Another disadvantage is that this method may require an extended period of time depending on the time interval chosen.

Finally, it also requires records of past performance such as the actual number of payroll errors before the project, and also requires that records be kept of current activities related to the project; or that implementing the project be delayed until the baseline - that is, the "before" - data has been collected.

EXAMPLE: TIME-INTERVAL

Objective–20% increase in placements

Project–use special veteran's counselor

TIME-INTERVAL EXAMPLE:

To illustrate the Time Interval Method, let's assume that our objective is: "The office will achieve an increase of 20% in the monthly placement of all veteran applicants." It's thought that assigning one specific counselor to handle all veterans, and only veterans, is the best way to achieve this goal.

To evaluate the degree to which this objective is accomplished by having a specifically assigned counselor, we check back to find out how many veterans made applications and how many were placed in the past months. In this case, the time interval is one month. It's decided that looking at the past six month period, January through June, would provide the needed information. It could have been a two, five, or a twelve month period, but two months didn't seem long enough - the placement rate in these two months could have been out-of-the-ordinary for one reason or another. A period longer than two months gives a more trustworthy view of how the office has been doing with veterans before assigning a special veterans counselor is assigned. So six months is chosen as long enough, but not too long, for this particular project.

Knowing the number of applications and placements during a month, we can compute the percentage of applicants placed. Gathering this historical data on past performance is called establishing a "baseline."

"BE CAUTIOUS OF PERCENTAGES"

TIME-INTERVAL EXAMPLE: (Con'd)

A note of caution is required at this point. When working with percentages, be less confident of your figures as your numbers decrease in size. For example, two out of four is 50% and three out of four is 75%. One number here makes a difference of 25%, but one number out of ten makes only a 10% difference. When working with a small number of cases it would be better to use the actual numbers rather than percentages.

BASELINE TABLE

MONTH	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN
VETERAN APPLICANTS	60	50	54	64	30	40
VETERAN PLACEMENTS	41	34	30	46	20	24
PERCENTAGE	68%	68%	55%	71%	66%	60%

TOTAL PLACEMENT ÷ TOTAL APPLICANTS = AVERAGE BASELINE

$195 \div 298 = 298\overline{)195} = .65$ or 65%

TIME-INTERVAL EXAMPLE: (Con'd)

Page 92 of the Workbook has a sample chart showing the applications, placements, and percentages of applicants placed from January through June. Now we'll compute an average baseline for the entire six months period.

To compute the average baseline percentage we add up all the applicants for the six months, which comes to 298. Then we add up all the placements during the period, which gives us 195. Finally, we divide the number of placements by the number of applicants (195 divided by 298) and we get about 65 percent. Which means that on an average for the six months, 65 percent of all the veteran applicants were placed. Don't add up the monthly percentages and divide by the number of months. You won't get a correct answer that way.

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

If some people question this last point, have them do the computations that are involved. 195 divided by 298 equals 65.4%, while adding the percentages for each month and dividing by 6 equals 64.6%. In this case, there is a difference, although it's small. In other cases, the difference might be greater. The reason is that the percentage (in this example, for each month) is computed on the basis of different totals (number of applications) for each month. Adding and averaging per cents is like adding apples, peaches, and pears.

BASELINE TABLE	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN
VETERAN APPLICANTS	60	50	54	64	30	40
VETERAN PLACEMENTS	41	34	30	46	20	24
PERCENTAGE	68%	68%	55%	71%	66%	60%

PROJECT TABLE	JUL	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC
VETERAN APPLICANTS	58	60	62	54	56	62
VETERAN PLACEMENTS	40	50	54	48	50	54
PERCENTAGE	68%	83%	87%	88%	89%	87%

Assume that the veterans counselor project is implemented on July 1st and the activity for the next six months is recorded. The bottom chart on page 94 of the Workbook illustrates the results from July to December.

Using both charts and the project objective, let's discuss the results.

What percentage of veterans would we have to place to meet our goal of a 20% increase?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to answer the question before proceeding.*

If we add 20% to the baseline average of 65% we get 85%. Eighty-five percent is the goal.

Question: Was the goal achieved in July and August?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to answer the question before proceeding.*

Obviously, the answer is "no." The goal was 85%, but the placement rates of 68% and 83% for July and August were only 68% and 83%

Next question: Was the goal achieved from September through December?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to discuss the question before proceeding.*

Clearly, the goal of 85% was exceeded each month from September through December.

Now, how would you explain the lower percentages for the months of July and August?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to discuss the question before proceeding. One answer might be that it took the veteran's counselor the first two months to become sufficiently knowledgeable and proficient to start being really effective. Note that there was an increase in the number of veteran applicants, but the number of jobs developed may have remained the same. So the veterans counselor is placing more individuals than before. This is a tricky point - so make sure it's clear before proceeding.*

DID THE PROJECT CAUSE THE OUTCOME?

Do you know for sure that it was the special veteran's counselor who was responsible for the increase in placements?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group time to discuss this question before proceeding.*

No. We don't know for certain. We have to look at other factors: for example, what sorts of jobs are currently available for veterans? Has the agencu's publicity brought more veterans in as applicants? Or what if a new plant just opened up in town and hired 1,200 people during this six month period? And so forth.

This method of evaluation doesn't take these factors into consideration, and we should consider them before we make a final evaluation of the project's ability to met the criteria stated in its goals. For example, the new plant opening may have made the difference even without a special veterans counselor. If that's the case, the allocation of funds to the special counselor's position was a waste of money that could have been put to better use, such as in more clerical help to the regular counselors.

SUMMARY: TIME-INTERVAL

Simple and inexpensive

Provides a baseline

No comparison group

No accounting for other factors

Requires extended time period

Records must be kept

SUMMARY: In summary, the Time-Interval Method has the advantage of being simple because it only requires a small amount of statistical computation; it's relatively inexpensive; and it does provide a baseline from which to measure results. It's superior to the method of "Comparing Goals to Results" because it provides both baseline data against which to measure change and measures of the goals themsleves. The disadvantages of this method are that it does not take into account other factors which might have changed since the "baseline" data was gathered and could have affected the result. And, it can take a lot of time to complete the evaluation, and a lot of work to keep the records required to compare "before" and "after."

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Again, have the group give one or more examples of this method in the program, and discuss it in terms of the advantages and disadvantages of this evaluation method. If the Time-Interval Method isn't currently being used, ask them to review the examples they used in relation to the "Comparing Goals to Results" summary and discuss the ways in which the "Time-Interval" method could be used in relation to those examples.*

Group Comparison Method

-A combination method

-Provides greatest validity

GROUP COMPARISON METHOD:

The third method is called the "Comparison Group Method," or "Control Group Method." The Comparison Group Method must be used with one or the other of the two methods we've just gone over. This method uses two groups: one on which to test the project and a comparable group that is not involved in the project. When the project is finished, we compare the outcomes of the two groups. This helps to control for factors other than the project itself which could affect results, because there is an equal possiblity that both groups will be affected by these other factors. These "other factors" are the things we discussed earlier such as "a new plant opening in town," or the staff breakfast to which people came on time.

The Group Comparison method should be used when it is especially important to trust the evaluation results - for example, if we wanted to be sure it was the special veterans counselor that made the difference - because if it was, then a decision would be made to put a special veterans counselor in every office in the state or region. That's an expensive decision, so we would want to be sure it was the veterans specialist that accounted for the results, rather than the opening of a new plant, or a cyclical raise in the employment market.

Group Comparison Method

ADVANTAGE:

- Accounts for other factors

DISADVANTAGES:

- More complex
- Requires time
- Requires more people

ADVANTAGES: The primary advantage to this method is that a comparison group takes into account factors other than the project which might have effected the results. For example, if some veterans don't see a special veterans counselor, and veterans in the project group do, and the project group veterans do at least 20% better in getting jobs than the others, then we can be reasonably certain that the addition of a special veterans counselor was the factor that produced the difference. Outside factors, like the opening of a new plant, would affect both groups about equally, so a difference in placement rate had to be due to the special veterans counselor.

DISADVANTAGES: The disadvantages of this method are that it is more complex; it takes more time; and it could be more expensive because of the additional effort required in arranging for a group that does not see the special veteran's counselor. Lastly, we would have to have enough individuals to form the two groups - one that participates in the project, and one that does not. And the individuals who do not participate must not be disadvantaged or hurt because they do not participate.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *At some point, the group may wish to discuss the ethical problems that result when a comparison (or control) group is created, because members of that group are deprived of an experimental service. This could come up here, or when the group is making plans for its own project.*

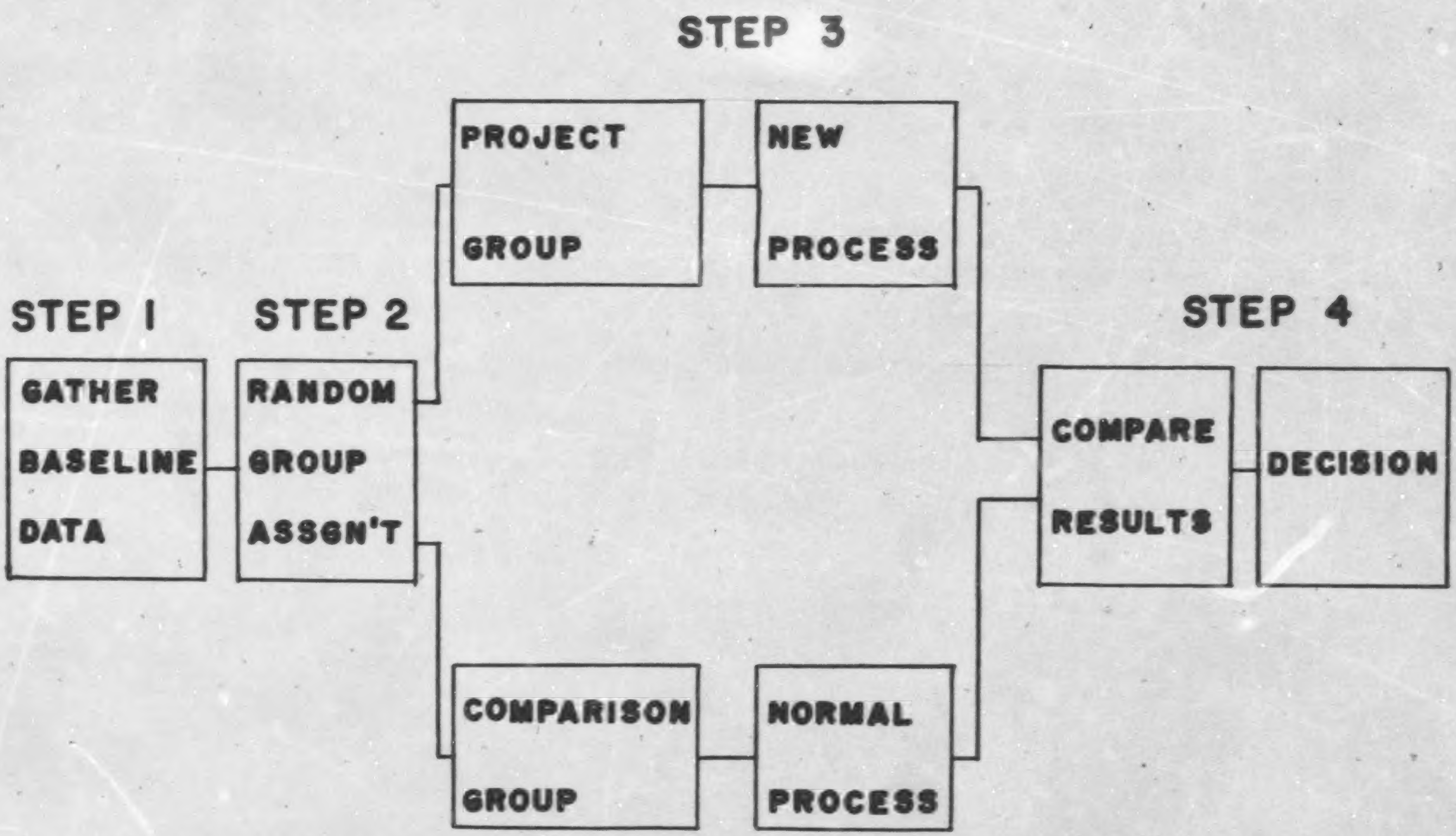
Steps For Use

1. Select Objective/Result or Time-Interval
2. Random assignment
3. Implement the project
4. Compare the groups

FOUR STEPS
TO EVALUATION:

The Comparison Group method has four basic steps:

- first, select either the "Comparing the Goals with Results" method or the "Time-Interval Method" as the basic evaluation technique, and gather the baseline data.
- second, assign people to the two different groups (the project group and the comparison group) using the technique of "random assignment" to make sure that the two groups have just about the same kinds of members. Random Assignment uses a table of random numbers and is discussed in the Resource Package titled "Random Assignment." If we decide to use the Comparison Group method, we must use the random assignment technique or our results wont' be valid, because it makes a lot of difference if the two groups are not comparable and one group is made up of easier or more difficult applicants than the other.
- the third step is to impelemtn the project with the project group.
- the last step is to compare the results of the project group and the comparison group, to decide if the project made a difference.



STEP 1

GATHER BASELINE DATA

STEP 2

RANDOM GROUP ASSGN'T

STEP 3

PROJECT GROUP

NEW PROCESS

COMPARISON GROUP

NORMAL PROCESS

STEP 4

COMPARE RESULTS

DECISION

COMPARISON GROUP METHOD: For example, let's take the last example discussed for the Time-Interval method and combine it with the Group Comparison method. The data is presented on page of the Workbook.

The Objective was to increase the placement of veteran applicants by 20%.

The project was to use a special veterans counselor.

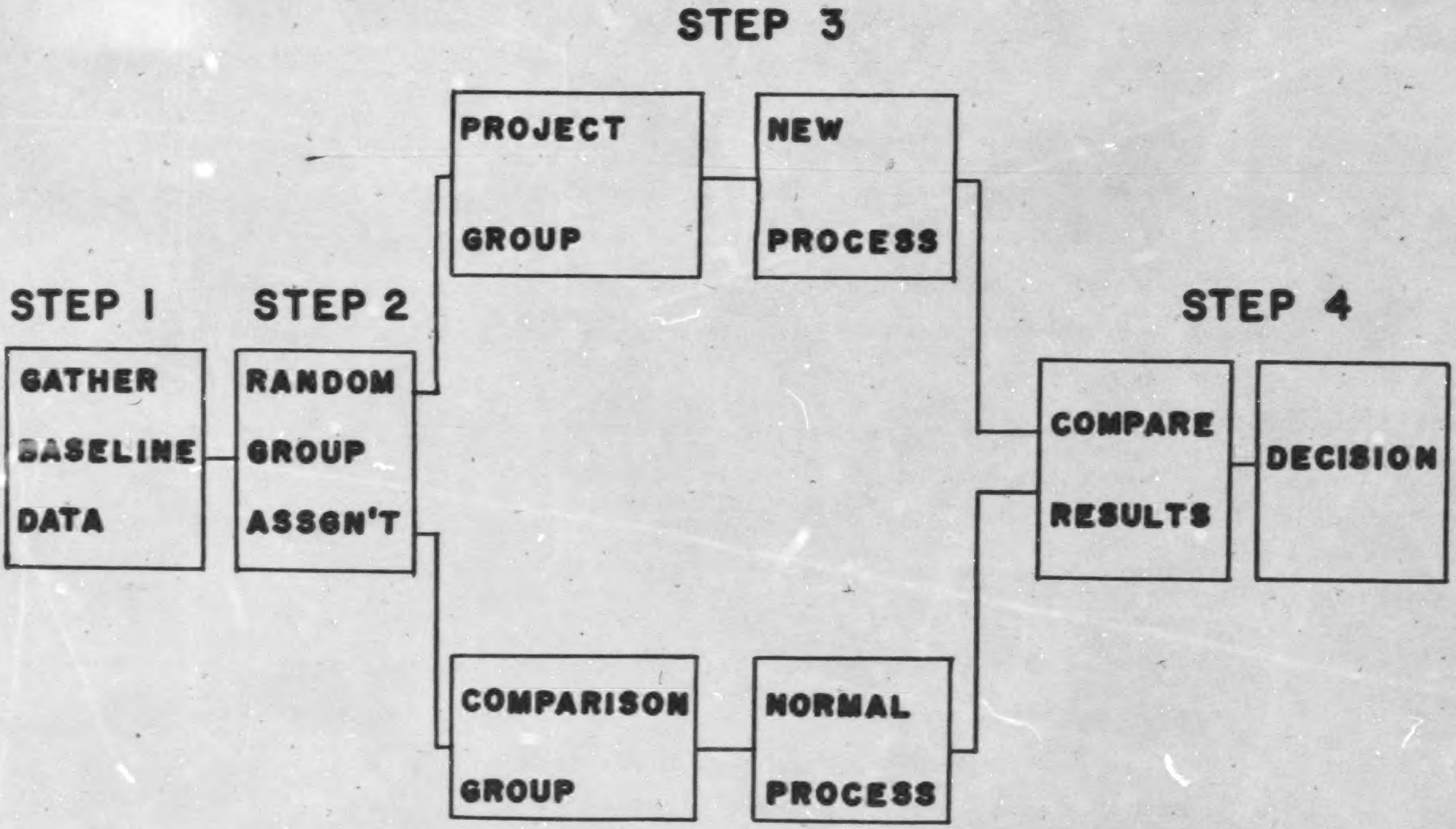
The first step was to decide to use the Time-Interval method in combination with the Group Comparison method. Baseline data was gathered and processed as before. With this method, we would be comparing the performance of two groups to one another, and also to their own previous performance.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *This is a potentially confusing point. Make sure it's clear that two comparisons are made.*

Now what's the second step?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the group comes up with the correct answer go on to the next question, "What's the third step?" If they don't come up with the correct answer use the answer that follows. Use the same procedure with regard to the third and fourth "steps."*

In the second step, the "random assignment" technique would be used during the next five months to assign veteran applicants to the project group or to the comparison group. So as each veteran comes along, he or she would be assigned randomly to either the special veterans counselor - that is, the project group - or to the usual office procedures - the comparison group.



STEP 1

GATHER BASELINE DATA

STEP 2

RANDOM GROUP ASSGN'T

STEP 3

PROJECT GROUP

NEW PROCESS

COMPARISON GROUP

NORMAL PROCESS

STEP 4

COMPARE RESULTS

DECISION

COMPARISON GROUP METHOD: (Con'd)

What's the third step? *(Pause)*

In the third step the project group would be handled by a special veterans counselor whose sole job was to help veterans, while the comparison group would get in the normal agency services.

What's the fourth step? *(Pause)*

In the fourth step, the results of dealing with veterans in the two different ways would be compared.

BASELINE	**PROJECT GROUP**	
65%	**85%**	**20% INCREASE**
BASELINE	**COMPARISON GROUP**	
65%	**65%**	**NO CHANGE**
PROJECT GROUP	**COMPARISON GROUP**	
85%	**65%**	**20% DIFFERENCE**

To make this example clear, let's use some sample data. *[Page 94 of the Workbook.]*

First, in comparing the project group to the baseline data for all veteran placements, let's say they found an increased rate of placement of 20% for veterans who saw the special veterans counselor.

When the comparison group was compared with the baseline data, it was found that the placement rate for veterans who were processed in the normal way during the months after the project began was no better than it had been before the project began.

What would this tell us?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to discuss this question. The next paragraph answers the question. If the group was correct, go on to the next question without reading the paragraph.*

This comparison suggests that there were no significant factors other than the project that affected the rate of veterans placements such as a new plant opening up because that kind offactor would have affected the placement rate of both groups.

In short, these hypothetical data would show that the project group achieved a 20% higher placement rate than the comparison group. What would this tell us?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion of this question. The next paragraph answers the question. Again, only read it aloud if the group's answer was uncomplete or incorrect.*

... reasonably sure that the special veterans counselor made the difference...

Since the random assignment technique was used to create two groups with equal employment qualifications, yet no significant increase was seen in the employment rate of the comparison group, we can be reasonably confident that the improved placement rate was due to the work of the special veterans counselor.

"COMPARABLE" GROUP

COMPARABLE GROUP: One other point about the Comparison Group Method: if it's not possible to have a randomly assigned comparison group because we don't have enough people to make two groups, or because we decide it wouldn't be fair to the applicants to not let them all get the special attention of the special veterans counselor, we may use a substitute "Comparable Group" for comparison. This means we might use a similar group from another agency or office - one that doesn't have a special veteran's counselor - as our comparison group, instead of a group of randomly assigned veterans. This reduces the validity of the results but it is better than having no comparison group at all. It reduces the validity somewhat because the veterans who apply at that office may not have as high job qualifications as those who live in this area, or because that office might be in a place where there are more jobs, so its easier to place them.

When selecting a "comparable group" we should try to find a situation as similar as possible to our own. What kinds of similarities should we look for in the example we're discussing?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow the group to discuss this question. If they come up with the answer given below, skip it and go on to the next page.*

The "comparable group" should be composed of veterans in a program where the placement rate was about the same as the placement rate for our program before we started using the special veterans counselor. In addition, they should be pretty much like the veterans in our program with regard to such things as age, number of years in service, and amounts and kinds of prior training.

SUMMARY

COMPARISON GROUP

SUMMARY:

In summary, the comparison group method requires random assignment of individuals to a "project group" and to a "comparison group" and a comparison of the outcomes of the two groups.

The advantage of this method is that is has greater validity because it compensates for other factors that might affect the results.

The disadvantages of the method are that is is more complex and requires more time. This could mean more mistakes and greater costs.

If the situation does not permit the random selection of a project group and a comparison group, a substitute "comparable" group may be used instead, but the validity of the evaluation will not be as good.

Finally, this is the best of the three methods to use when we must be sure that our evaluation of results is as dependable as possible. However, even this method isn't foolproof. For example, take the special veterans counselor project. Assume that comparable groups were developed, and a appropriate data was gathered correctly. Why might you still not be sure that hiring or assigning someone to be a special veterans counselor would be effective, even though the placement rate went up?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Here is one answer. If the person placed in the special veterans job was exceptionally talented, there is still no guarantee that adding the role of special vets counselor made the difference. To gain more confidence, it would be wise to add several special veterans counselors in different offices. But that complicates the evaluation even more, and you'd have to decide if it's important enough to warrant such a large effort. The major point here is that evaluation is a tricky business, and should be approached thoughtfully and critically.

A simple experiment that demonstrates the problems of evaluation...

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *The following simple experiment is included to give the group a shared experience in the problems of evaluation that have been covered in this chapter. The experiment is optional, but should be interesting and useful in making clear the complexities of evaluation. Note that you will have to prepare four tracings ahead of time as described below, as well as providing two blank sheets of paper for every group member. You'll also need a watch.*

A SIMPLE EXPERIMENT: Here's a simple experiment that should demonstrate many of the points we've covered in this chapter. First, we'll use the method of random assignment to break into two groups.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Have the group use the resource packet on "Random Assighment" to break into two groups A and B. Have groups A and B sit as far apart as possible, so they can't hear each other. You will not be participating in either group. Your job will be to gather data as it is generated by the experiment. Give each group member two blank pieces of paper.*

INSTRUCTIONS RE DIAGRAM I: Here's how this will work. First, select one person in your group to serve as "demonstrator." This should be comeone who can describe something accurately, using words alone.

Everyone else should write "Diagram I" on the top of one blank page, and "Diagram II" on the top of the other. Then all of you should turn your chairs around, so that you have your backs to the "demonstrator" in your group, and are not able to see the other group's demonstrator.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If each group sits in an opposite corner of the room, each group should face into the corner.*

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE DEMONSTRATION

INSTRUCTIONS:
(Con'd)

Now I'll give each demonstrator a diagram. *(Here's where you give each a tracing of Diagram I. You'll find the diagrams to be traced on the next page.)* Each demonstrator is to study the diagram for two minutes, then describe it to his or her group as quickly and accurately as he or she can. Each of you should then try to draw the diagram as described by your demonstrator, as accurately as you can, using the sheet you labeled "Diagram I." But here's the catch: you may not ask the demonstrator any questions, the demonstrator can't make any comments about the accuracy of your individual drawings, and you may not look at the demonstrator or his or her copy of the diagram, even after you've finished your drawing. Is that clear?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Make sure that everyone understands these rules. Check the time when each group starts. Have the group notify you when the last person in the group has finished his/her drawing. Score the elapsed time (from start to finish) for each group on your recording form on page 95 of the Workbook.

Each person should now estimate the number of squares he or she has drawn correctly in relation to the other squares, and write this on the sheet for Diagram I.

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Record the estimates on the recording form. Then, once everyone has finished the drawing and the estimate of the accuracy of their drawing, have the demonstrator show them Diagram I, and record the actual number of squares each person had drawn correctly.

DIAGRAM I

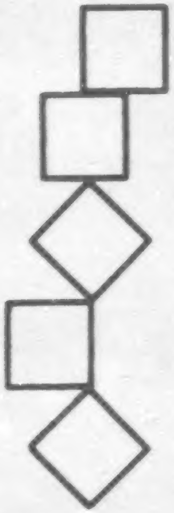
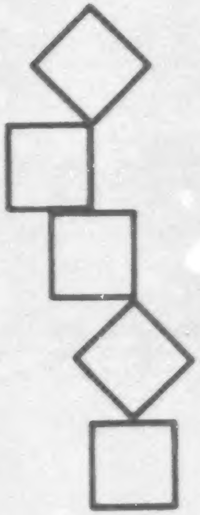


DIAGRAM II



What do the results demonstrate about the process of evaluation ?

INSTRUCTIONS RE DIAGRAM II: Now repeat this procedure, using Diagram II, with the following difference. Group A is to proceed as before, but Group B's members are to face their demonstrator, and may ask questions about the diagram although they may not see the diagram that the demonstrator is describing. The demonstrator can answer their questions, but cannot comment on their drawings or tell anyone whether he or she has done his or her drawings correctly. Group A should not be able to hear this discussion.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Once again, the time for each group's start and finish should be recorded. When both groups complete their drawings and their estimate of success in relation to Diagram II, record the data. You may also want to show the recording form to the group.*

DISCUSSION: Could these results be considered examples of the "Comparing Goals to Results" method of evaluation?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Yes, the group's response to Diagram I could be considered an example of data that could be used for comparing goals to results on the assumption that the goal was to get perfect drawings.*

DISCUSSION: Why did each group achieve the results they did, in relation to Diagram I?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Encourage members to discuss the factors that made each of them more or less successful in the drawings or in their estimates.*

DISCUSSION: Could any of these results on Diagram I and/or Diagram II be considered to be examples of the Time-Interval method of evaluation?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Yes, the results on Diagram I represent a baseline for comparison with the performance on Diagram II.*

DISCUSSION: Are any of the results examples of the Comparison Group method of evaluation?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: Yes, on Diagram II the difference in the behavior of the demonstrator in Group B made B the experimental group, with A as the comparison group. Encourage the group to discuss the factors that affected the results on Diagram II. Have the group use the data to answer the following questions:

1) In relation to Diagram I, was group A more or less effective than Group B? Be sure to compare A and B on accuracy, time, and accuracy of estimates.
2) Did the change in the B Group demonstrator's method of presenting information affect Group B's performance? Again, compare A and B on accuracy, timing, and accuracy of estimates.
3) Have the group discuss results in which one group performs better on one criterion (e.g., time) but doesn't do as well on another criterion (e.g., accuracy).

The point of the discussion is that evaluation does not necessarily result in a clear or simple determination that one procedure is better than another. There is usually a value question: which criterion is more important to the group? For instance, there may be some situations in which time is relatively more important than accuracy. Suggest that the group discuss this in relation to program realities and in relation to the evaluation of their LODI project.

When To Evaluate–

Small-scale try-outs of costly projects

To persuade others

WHEN TO EVALUATE:

In concluding this discussion, we should note some circumstances under which a project should or should not be evaluated. A project should be evaluated when it is being tried out on a small scale prior to implementing it on a full scale. Evaluation here indicates whether or not the full scale project should be implemented in the same way that the try-out was done. This is an important consideration since implementation on a full scale may involve a fair amount of change in the way that staff do their work, and may involve significant tangible costs in terms of resources that are needed elsewhere. another reason for evaluating a project is to persuade others of the benefits of a project. For example, if we were to develop a better method for achieving a particular goal, we might want to get other organizations to try it; or funding sources to support it. In such a case, we woudl have to evaluate our project and describe our evaluation in some detail.

Are there other resons for evaluating a project?

NOTE TO CONVENOR:

Allow for some discussion before moving on. The group should be clear on their reasons for evaluation their LODI project.

Don't evaluate if:

- -Project cost is small
- -Evaluation cost excedes project cost

WHEN NOT TO EVALUATE:

Sometimes we should not evaluate a project.

We could decide not to spend the time and energy evaluating a project because the project cost is very small and it isn't necessary to demonstrate the cost-payoff relationship. Then again, the cost of evaluating a project might so far exceed the expenses of implementing the project that it wouldn't be feasible to do an evaluation.

For example, it might be useful to have clients express their views about the effectiveness of the special veterans counselor in regard to what he or she did that was helpful or not helpful, but it would simply be too costly to locate all of these clients, then gather and analyze their responses.

We should be able to use what we've learned from Chapter 5 in relation to comparing costs to payoffs when trying to decide whether or not to evaluate a project.

Methods of Evaluation

Objectives/Results

Time-Interval

Comparison Group

WHO will do WHAT in evaluating our project?

CONCLUSION: In this session we have discussed and examined three methods of evaluating the results of a project.

The three methods were the "Comparing Objectives with Results" method, the "Time Interval Method" and the "Comparison Group Method." We discussed when to use each of them, and their respective advantages and disadvantages.

A summary of all of these points is presented on page 96 of the Workbook

At this point, we should be ready to apply this session on "Evaluation" to our own project.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Ask the group to discuss its plans for evaluation of its project. The group must now decide what method should be used. Decide how the evaluation will be implemented, and who will see that it is done. Depending on the time available, have the group share information that will help to get the process of evaluation started. Also depending on time available, you may want to ask the group to discuss the use of these three methods of evaluation apart from the problem-solving process taught by the LODI Workshop.*

CHAPTER VIII

REASSESSMENT

Directions for the Convenor:

1. Remove this chapter intact from the Convenor's Manual.
2. Place it in the A-Frame presentation binder with this page facing you.
3. Flip the page so that Convenor's Script - Page 2 is facing you and Display Page - Page 1 is facing the group.
4. When you are ready to start this group presentation, flip over Convenor's Script - Page 2 so that Convenor's Script - Page 3 is facing you and begin following the script.
5. When finished, return the chapter, intact, to the Convenor's Manual.

CHAPTER VIII

REASSESSMENT

CHAPTER VIII

REASSESSMENT

REASSESSMENT

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *The group should not go through the chapter until it's project is in full swing or has been completed.*

INTRODUCTION: At any one point in the development of a project we are likely to be in either of two situations: it's working or it isn't working. In either case it's necessary to continually review the project and the process used in creating it to see what is going right and what changes might be made. Some of what we'll cover now might not be directly applicable to our project, but should be covered, so that we'll be able to reassess any project in the future.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *If the project is over, and according to the evaluation of the project, it achieved it's goal, then the material on what to do if a project doesn't work should be covered in terms of reassessing future projects. If the project is not over, the material that follows can be useful in terms of progress to date, or problems that have come up.*

Has the need changed?

IF IT DIDN'T WORK: If our project did not work we'll have to figure out why. Many things go into making a project work, and any one of them can make it fail. This chapter presents 13 general questions we can ask ourselves to identify the problem. We can discuss each, in turn.

First, has the need changed?

It may be that the project went well but didn't fulfill the need because the need has changed, or no longer exists. In either case, the decision-making and implementation could be begun again to meet a new need or to work on some of the other needs.

Has anything happened to our original need? Is it as strong a need as it seemed to us when we first selected it?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Remind the group of the words used in the original need statement. Allow for discussion, then continue. This is the pattern to be used throughout this chapter. Since there are a large number of questions to be answered, you should try to move the discussion along. Emphasis should be placed on answering the questions, not on placing blame for any difficulties or outright failures. There's nothing wrong, however, with praising individuals for successful actions, providing this praise can be easily spread around the group.*

Is the need still important?

Next: Is the need still important enough to continue working on it?

Even if the need is the same, it may no longer be important. Or, it may have been important enough to try once, but not worth a second effort. If this is the case it's time to go on to another need.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for any discussion; then continue.*

Should the goal statement be changed?

Should the goal statement be changed?

Maybe we picked the wrong target or perhaps the actions or results were poorly defined. Perhaps the criteria for success were unrealistic.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Read the original goal statement. Allow for discussion; then continue.*

Were enough resources allocated to allow the project to operate as planned?

Were enough resources allocated to allow the project to operate as planned?

Underestimating needed resources can cause the failure of a project that would have otherwise succeeded. Does this point relate to our project?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion; then continue.*

Were real costs excessive in relation to estimated costs ?

Were real costs - tangible and intangible - excessive in relation to estimated costs?

Higher costs may have prohibited the complete implementation of the project. If this is the case or has become the case, the calculation of relative advantages will have to be reconsidered. Was it the case?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion; then continue. Have the group identify some of the costs - tangible and intangible - that actually arose, but which were not anticipated.*

Do adjustments in the project management have to be made ?

Do adjustments in the project's management have to be made? For example:

Did the resources get to the right place at the right time?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion after each question on this page, then continue.*

Were the resources used efficiently and effectively?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Discussion.*

Did staff members have the skills and knowledge to implement the solution?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Discussion.*

Were the right functions performed at the right times?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Discussion.*

Did the project take longer than expected? If so, we have to work on developing more realistic time estimates in the future.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Discussion.*

Did critical superior or subordinate staff members resist or subvert the change ?

Did critical superior or subordinate staff members resist or subvert the change?

If so, the solution may have to be modified or those resisting the change enlisted in the change process.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, then continue.*

What else?

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If we didn't find our problem by going through these questions, and everything about our project seemed to go right except for the results, it may very well be that the solution we picked is wrong for this goal. If so we could review the alternative solutions and pick another.

IF IT WORKED: Even if our project worked, there is reason to reassess. It gives us an opportunity to review our project and make sure that we did what we set out to do. In addition, it helps to focus on what we did right. And most important, it can help us think about ways of making the changes we've introduced a part of our regular operation. So here are some of the questions we should be asking ourselves if the project worked.

Is the need the same?

Is the need the same?

Even though our project is meeting our goals it may be that the need has changed. Maybe the project has outlived its usefulness. If not, it should be kept on as a regular operation and no longer as a special project. What should we do about that now?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, then continue.*

Is it still working ?

Is it still working?

Evaluation should not be limited to a one-time-only measure. We should periodically review the effectiveness of our project. If we find that it no longer works, we could make the kinds of changes suggested in our earlier discussion of why the project didn't work.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *May be no need to discuss; go on.*

Were costs excessive ?

Were the costs excessive?

Even though the project worked, unexpected costs may have reduced the relative advantage of our solution. We might want to reconsider whether or not to continue it in its present form. Should we?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, then continue.*

Were there any negative side effects ?

Were there any negative side effects?

If morale has dropped or absence and lateness increased we may have a project which is not worth as much as we thought. Have there been any negative side effects that we hadn't expected?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, then continue.*

Have we learned recently about a "better" solution ?

Have we learned about a "better" solution?

Some of us might have heard recently about a new technique or solution which works better or costs less than the one we chose. We'll have to decide whether it promises to work that much better or be that much cheaper than our way, to justify the cost of adopting the new idea; we need to be able to change when it is worthwhile, but we can't be always changing or we'll wear everybody out.

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Allow for discussion, then continue.*

If none of the above questions presents any problems we're probably still on the right track, but we should ask these questions every now and then just to make sure things stay that way. Now it's up to us to decide what happens next.

ARE WE
FINISHED, OR
JUST
STARTING

?

At this time the Workshop series is finished except for a most important question: are the skills and knowledge presented in the Workshop to be forgotten, or will they be used on a continuing basis in solving office and individual problems? If the skills and knowledge that have been presented during this Workshop are applied by each of us, we should be able to gain greater personal satisfaction from doing our jobs more efficiently and effectively, with greater payoffs for the people we serve.

We've seen that the techniques and methods taught in the Workshop can be used as a whole, in carrying out a project, or can be used each by itself in ways that are useful on our jobs. These techniques were assessing program needs and identifying a priority of needs, translating general need statements into specific goal statements, developing a number of alternative ways to reach the goal, selecting the alternative with the best relative advantage in terms of payoffs and costs, managing the implementation of the chosen alternative, then evaluating the degree to which the use of that alternative has led to goal achievement.

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?

Although the Workshop itself is ending, this should be only the beginning for the use of the techniques we have just used. There are still many needs that were identified in the first needs assessment of this Workshop which remain unfulfilled.

There may be other staff members in this office who could benefit from this training Workshop. So, our final question is: what's next? Where do we go from here?

NOTE TO CONVENOR: *Encourage members to discuss the question. Here are some possibilities:*

1. *This group might continue, to work on other needs, or see to it that the project becomes part of the office's regular procedure, if it worked.*
2. *A different group in the office might go through the Workshop.*
3. *A LODI committee or task force might be appointed to use the process on a regular basis to solve other problems.*
4. *Principles taught by the Workshop might be used by each staff person on his or her job; for example, contracting with individual clients, using Delphi with an Advisory Committee, etc.*
5. *Participants in the workshop might be rewarded with a letter in their personnel file indicating that they have completed the Workshop, a closing party, etc.*

RESOURCE PACKETS

LOCAL OFFICE DECISION-MAKING AND IMPLEMENTATION

MANPOWER SCIENCE SERVICES, INC.

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RESOURCE PACKET #1
Interviews and Questionnaires

Interviews and Questionnaires are two methods of gathering information which have many similarities. The interview, as described here, differs from the counseling interview or job interview in that it is more structured. That is, all the questions are prepared in advance and are read to each respondent. The difference between the information gathering interview and the questionnaire is in the method of administration: the interview is verbal and face-to-face (or over the phone) and the interviewer records the answers. The questionnaire is written and self-administered by the respondent, the person answering the questions. Both use questions prepared in advance. This Resource Packet will provide you with information on how to prepare questions that will enable you to gather the information you need in an accurate and precise manner.

Length

Questionnaires and interviews should not be excessively long. An interview should take no longer than 30 minutes and a questionnaire should be no longer than 10 typewritten pages or about 45 to 60 questions. If you go beyond these limits, the respondent may become tired or bored and the questions toward the end may be rushed over and inaccurately answered, if at all. For most purposes, an interview of 15 minutes or a questionnaire of 2 to 5 pages should be more than adequate.

Questionnaire or Interview?

The main advantage of an interview is in the flexibility the interviewer has to seek further information from the respondent and to follow up ideas. The main disadvantages of the interview are in the amount of time it takes to administer and the lack of anonymity.

The questionnaire has two main advantages: 1) Since no interviewer time is needed a larger number of people can be surveyed allowing for greater confidence in the results. 2) The self-administered nature of the questionnaire insures that the respondent remains anonymous, allowing him more freedom to be critical of policies. The disadvantages of the questionnaire lie in the possibility of receiving incomplete answers that cannot be followed up and having questions misunderstood.

Question Type

There are three basic types of questions: 1) fact, 2) perception, and 3) opinion or attitude. Questions of fact ask the respondent to provide information about things of which he or she has a direct knowledge, such as age, position, number of phone calls received, etc. These questions allow the respondents to be divided into groups to see if there are any differences among the groups in the way other questions are answered. For example, supervisors could be compared to counselors to see if they have different ideas as to how much time should be spent with each client or enrollee.

Questions of perception are designed to determine the respondent's level of information about various things of interest in the survey. That is, they are designed to find out what the respondents believe to be the facts. Usually the respondent is asked to give an estimate about something that could be checked objectively.

Example:

About how many Veterans do you think are interviewed in the Local Employment office every month?

_____ 0 - 10
_____ 10 - 25
_____ 25 - 50
_____ 50 - 100
_____ more than 100

Questions of opinion or attitude ask the respondent to make a value judgment about the issue.

Example:

How much in favor of or opposed to the establishment of separate work centers for physically handicapped enrollees are you?

_____ strongly in favor
_____ in favor
_____ neither for nor against
_____ opposed
_____ strongly opposed

Question Format

There are two basic forms of questions: unstructured and structured.

Unstructured Questions are also known as "open-ended" or "free-response" questions. In this form the respondent is not told to choose from a given set of answers but is free to respond in any way.

Example:

What problems do you see in communication among staff members?

____

____

Advantages: Unstructured questions are useful if: 1) you don't know what type of answers to expect, so you can't list the possibilities in advance; 2) you expect a wide range of responses; 3) you want to preserve the "color" or "flavor" of the answers; or 4) you want to get specific examples. Disadvantages: 1) Unstructured questions are unwieldy, especially in an interview where the interviewer must record answers word-for-word. Similarly, in self-administered questionnaires this type of question is very time-consuming and bothersome for the respondent to fill out. A lack of interest may result or, worse, the questionnaire may never be filled out. 2) These questions take up a lot of space, especially if you want to leave ample room to write an extensive answer. 3) The answers are especially difficult to analyze since there is no specific way of counting similar answers, therefore making it difficult to calculate percentages, averages, or majorities. Consequently, it is hard to draw conclusions from this type of question.

Structured Questions present the respondent with a fixed number of alternative answers from which to choose.

Example:

How effective do you feel you are in working with people on a one-to-one basis?

_____ very effective
_____ effective
_____ somewhat effective
_____ ineffective
_____ very ineffective

Advantages: 1) Every respondent chooses from among the same alternatives so comparisons of responses can be made. 2) Structured questions are easy to administer, as only a check-mark is needed to indicate the desired answer, not extensive writing by the interviewer or respondent. 3) More questions can be asked in the same amount of time since the responses are faster and easier to make and respondent fatigue is avoided. 4) The answers are easy to analyze since responses can be counted, grouped, added, etc.

Disadvantages: The main disadvantage is that the "color" or "flavor" of the responses is lost. The personalities of the respondents and their feelings are hidden. Another disadvantage is that the questions have to be very carefully constructed since no follow-up is possible.

In general, if it is at all possible to anticipate the likely answers to questions before the survey, the structured question is recommended. You will have more control and will end up with interpretable and usable data. Although the questions are structured, there are many different types of structuring available so you can choose the type that elicits the kind of information you want. Also, both unstructured and structured questions can be mixed in the same questionnaire if desired.

Types of Structured Questions

1. Dichotomous - only two choices are offered such as yes-no, good-bad, true-false, agree-disagree.

2. Multiple choice - more than two choices are usually offered, but there does not have to be an underlying continuum as is implied in a dichotomous question.

Example:

Which one occupational classification do you think has the greatest need for more training?

_____ managers
_____ supervisors
_____ counselors
_____ interviewers

Caution: It is important that the respondent choose only one answer to the question; thus, the wording is important in stressing that only one response is called for. Consider the following question:

Which occupational classification do you think has the need for more training?

_____ managers
_____ supervisors
_____ counselors
_____ interviewers

It is conceivable that some people might check two, three, or all four choices to answer the question. Others might choose only one of the four -- the one they feel has the greatest need. It is best to avoid situations like this one by being very specific, as is demonstrated in the previous example. If you don't, you may find it difficult to make sense of the responses you receive when you analyze them.

To "score" this type of question, one simply counts the number of times each alternative is chosen. In this case, a judgment can then be made as to the need for training.

Example:

Suppose the results for this question come out as follows after thirty questionnaires are returned:

"managers" checked by 3 respondents
"supervisors" checked by 5 respondents
"counselors" checked by 18 respondents
"interviewers" checked by 4 respondents

This type of response would indicate that a majority of the staff (60%) feels that counselors could use more training. A problem arises, however, in regard to the intensity of the answer. You will not know the importance placed on the need for training by the staff. Although this problem is a disadvantage in using multiple choice questions, they can be designed to tap the intensity by making the alternative choices points along a scale.

Example:

How do you feel about the amount of training that counselors receive for their job? That is, do you feel they receive:

_____ more than enough training
_____ enough training
_____ not enough training

Example:

How important is it to you to have a company library that is available to all staff?

_____ very important
_____ important
_____ unimportant
_____ very unimportant

When all the responses to this type of question are counted, you will have some information about the intensity of the respondents' feelings toward the issue.

A handy method of finding out how respondents feel about an issue, policy, action, idea, etc. is to use what is called a "Likert-type" question in which a scale of choices is constructed. This type of question usually consists of a very positive or a very negative statement followed by a standard set of responses asking the respondent to indicate how much he or she agrees or disagrees with the statement.

Example:

Our method of processing job orders is excellent in most respects:

_____ strongly agree
_____ agree
_____ indifferent
_____ disagree
_____ strongly disagree

With this type of question a series of statements about different issues can be written, each with the same set of responses. The respondent can learn the overall pattern of expected responses and answer the questions more rapidly. If this type of format is used, positive and negative statements should be interspersed to reduce bias.

Other scales and weighting methods exist and may be effectively used. They tend, however, to be more complicated to construct and analyze. So we suggest that it is best to stick to the basic types described here.

In general, if your purpose in using the questionnaire is to gather information about topics of which you have no previous knowledge, the unstructured question will generate much information that can be used to generate more specific questions. Conversely, if you already have some prior information, the structured question allows for a more accurate measure and more definite conclusions.

Question Wording Problems

Probably the most crucial element in questionnaire design is the wording of the question in a way that will lead to accurate conclusions. To achieve this end the questions should be worded such that the responses are not biased and the questions are interpreted similarly by all respondents. The wording problems can be classified under three major headings: ambiguity, misperception, and bias. It is essential to deal with these problems in developing questions in order to have confidence in the results.

Ambiguity: Questions that are exactly and precisely worded are easier to understand and to answer than ones that are incomplete, imprecise, or indefinite.

Example:

Are you in favor of or opposed to the changes that have taken place in this office? ____

The above is an example of an incomplete question. Its ambiguity makes it difficult for all respondents to interpret it in the same way. Respondents may ask themselves: what "changes" or, over what period of time? A person who is not aware that a change took place may have difficulty in answering it. One person might think that the "change" refers to a "change" in the color of file cabinets and favor the new color. Another may be opposed to the "change" in supervisors. Another may not consider the promotion of the assistant director to director a "change" since "he's been running the place all along." The point is: ask about the specific change you have in mind.

Examples

Are you in favor of or opposed to the policy of flexible office hours?

_____ strongly in favor
_____ in favor
_____ neither for nor against
_____ opposed
_____ strongly opposed

Imprecision in the question should also be avoided since it, also, leads to ambiguity.

Example:

Are you in favor of long coffee breaks:

_____ yes
_____ no

The obvious criticism of this question is "How long is 'long'?" The question should be asked with a precise time reference. Depending on the type of information you are seeking, there are two ways of asking this question precisely.

Example:

1. Are you in favor of 20 minute coffee breaks?

_____ yes
_____ no

2. How long a coffee break do you think is adequate?

_____ 5 minutes
_____ 10 minutes
_____ 15 minutes
_____ 20 minutes

The first of these questions is an opinion question asking for agreement or disagreement with an already proposed or existing policy. The second is an information gathering question, usually asked before a policy decision is made to determine the feelings of the staff.

Other sources of ambiguity arise from words that have more than one meaning. Sometimes even a word that is too simple can cause ambiguity proglems.

Example:

Do you think the waiting room is too cold?

_____ yes
_____ no

Answers to this question can include:

- "Yes," by a person who means that a few paintings on the wall and some plants would make the room seem warmer.
- "No," by a person who thinks the receptionist is one of the friendliest people he knows.
- "No," by a person who thinks that 68 degrees conserves energy.

The way to avoid ambiguity problems is to be very specific in what you are asking. To insure that you are asking what you intend to ask it is necessary to pre-test the questions. That is, ask the questions to some people who will not be in your final survey and see if they all interpret the question in the same way. It is best to use people from the same population you intend to survey, but, if they are not available, relatives, friends or co-workers will do. After you finish the pre-test, ask each person what they understood each question to mean. If different people saw different meanings to the same question, then the question is unclear and it should be rewritten. If one of the pre-test people asks you what the question means, then clearly, a new question is needed.

Misperception: The second wording problem is misperception: words that are not within the realm of the respondents' experience may have no meaning for him. Therefore, jargon and technical words should be avoided, unless you are sure the respondents are familiar with the words. This problem is especially important in interviewing, for respondents tend to misinterpret words they hear that are unfamiliar to them. They then tend to answer what they think they heard, which may be a word or phrase with which they are familiar that sounds similar to the word in the interview. For example, if some people working in an agency were asked if they would benefit from a "time and motion" study, they might well resent an implication that their "emotional" health is in question. Remember, the questionnaire or interview is an information gathering tool, not an achievement test. Keep in mind who the respondents are and use language with which they are familiar. Use their words for things, even if different from your own.

Bias: This wording problem is, perhaps, the most difficult to overcome. In order to gather accurate information, care should be taken to provide a neutral atmostphere which does not suggest to the respondent that one response is better than another. Questions can be biased in several ways, some obvious and others rather subtle. An obvious bias is introduced in multiple choice questions that do not provide adequate choices or when the wording is such that the respondent is trapped.

Example:

Do you feel women are inferior because of:

_____ heredity
_____ family pressure
_____ peer pressure

To determine if a prejudice against females exists it may be better to use a "Likert-type" question.

Example:

Women are inferior to men.

_____ strongly agree
_____ agree
_____ neutral
_____ disagree
_____ strongly disagree

Another type of bias is more subtle: appeal to prominent figures. The emotional value associated with an important person can introduce bias.

Example:

The manager has suggested having a staff meeting every week. Do you agree or disagree with this proposal?

_____ agree
_____ disagree

Depending on how the respondent feels about the manager, he may agree or disagree regardless of the issue. Also, any type of emotionally-charged words or value judgements can introduce bias into the question in a similar way.

Example:

Are you in favor of or opposed to the hiring of an extra clerk to help with the tremendous problem of excessive paper work?

_____ in favor
_____ opposed

In this example, words such as "extra," "tremendous," and "excessive" tend to bias the respondent into answering "in favor," A more neutral way of asking the same question would not include words as emotionally laden.

Example:

Are you in favor of or opposed to the hiring of another clerk to help with the paper work?

_____ in favor.
_____ opposed.

In general, try to avoid bias from entering the question by keeping it neutral. This problem requires considerable effort as it quite often does not show up in a pre-test.

Special Wording Problems: There are certain problems that are best described in a list of "don'ts":

1) Don't assume too much knowledge on the part of the respondents. Ask questions in their area of understanding. On the other hand,

2) Don't talk down to the respondents; they may get impatient or even antagonistic.

3) Don't use lengthy questions that can be difficult for a respondent to follow. Long questions also exhaust patience.

4) Don't use two-part questions. You won't know for sure which part is being answered.

5) Don't use "stilted" language. Write as people talk. On the other hand,

6) Don't wantonly violate good grammer. Double negatives and illogical sentence structure can pose problems.

Conclusion

The writing of good questions involves much thought and effort. However, no amount of forethought and planning can account for all errors. Always pre-test the questions. You will end up with a much better questionnaire and you will learn a lot from your mistakes.

RESOURCE PACKET #2
Method of Paired Comparisons

When people are asked to put a series of objects or statements in "rank order," for example, "Which of these five items do you like best, which do you like next best," and so on; it is assumed that they compare each item with every other item on the list in order to rank them. Unfortunately, people rarely do this. An additional problem faced by groups is to reach a consensus on rank order for all of the items being ranked. Even if a consensus is reached, a rank order gives no information as to the relative distance between different items in the rank order. Take, for example, five items that members of a group agreed were ranked in the following order: A, C, D, B, E. We know that the group thinks that item A is more important than item C, and that item B is more important than item E, etc. But the question is: Does the group see A as being more important than C to the same extent that B is more important than E? There is no information to answer questions of this type in the simple listing: A, C, D, B, E.

The Method of Paired Comparisons was developed to enhance the system of ranking items by:

1) Forcing raters to consider each item in relation to every other item;

2) Allowing for a group consensus to be reached;

3) Indicating the relative distances between items as judged by the group.

Using this method, each item is paired with every other item; for each pair the raters choose which one of the pair they prefer. For example, if three items A, B, and C were being compared, you would compare A with B, B with C, and C wth A. All possible pairs are used. The method can be used whenever any items have to be rank-ordered by a group provided the number of items is not too large: More will be said about that later.

Administration of Items

The items to be ranked are administered to the raters in pairwise fashion in the form of a checklist. Here is a sample list of four items that are to be compared.

Example:

Indicate for each pair which task is being done most effectively by our staff.

_____ A) conducting intake interviews
vs.
_____ B) counseling applicants

_____ C) assessing enrollees needs
vs.
_____ D) training new staff

_____ B) counseling applicants
vs.
_____ C) assessing enrollees needs

_____ D) training new staff
vs.
_____ B) counseling applicants

...and so forth until all possible pairs are listed.

For a list of five needs that are to be ranked, the total pairs should be as follows:

A vs. B   B vs. C   C vs. D   D vs. E

A vs. C   B vs. D   C vs. E

A vs. D   B vs. E

A vs. E

The pairs should be mixed on the page (as shown in the Example) to avoid any effect on the ratings due to the order of presentation. When all the pairs are checked privately by all of the raters, the results are combined as shown below.

Combination of Rankings

To combine individual rankings, you enter marks on a grid, like the one below, to indicate a person's "paired comparisons" for every possible pair of items. If, for example, he ranks B over A, we place an "X" in the B column (going down) opposite the A row (going across), as shown in this grid.

	A	B	C	D	E
A		X			
B					
C					
D					
E					

An easy way to think of this is B over A (referring to the headings on the columns which lie higher on the page than the title for each row).

Now suppose a person makes the following judgements:

A vs. [✓ B]   B vs. [✓ C]   [✓ C] vs. D   [✓ D] vs. E

A vs. [✓ C]   [✓ B] vs. D   [✓ C] vs. E

A vs. [✓ D]   [✓ B] vs. E

[✓ A] vs. E

If we filled in the grid to indicate this person's rankings, it would look like this:

	A	B	C	D	E
A		X	X	X	
B			X		
C					
D		X	X		
E	X	X	X	X	

Thus this person ranks C highest, followed in order by B, D A and E. The choices for everyone else who is involved in the ranking process are placed in the same grid, following the same procedure. (To make sure that X's are not incorrectly placed, all boxes in which an item might be compared with itself, such as "A vs. A" - an impossibility - have been crossed out). Suppose there are ten people involved in ranking the five tasks. When everyone's rankings are tallied, the grid would look like this:

	A	B	C	D	E
A		XXXXX XX	XXXXX XXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX
B	XXX		XXXXX X	XX	X
C	X	XXXX		XX	X
D	XXXXX	XXXXX XXX	XXXXX XXX		XX
E	XXXXX	XXXXX XXXX	XXXXX XXXX	XXXXX XXX	

The next step involves some simple calculation. These calculations help to determine both the rank order of the items and the relative distance between the rankings, or, in other words, how much the ranked items differ from one another. To do this, you first change the total number of X's in each cell to a proportion. A proportion is calculated for each cell by dividing the number of X's in a given cell by the total number of people doing the ranking.

For our example there were 10 raters so the number of marks in each cell is divided by 10. Although it is customary to place a proportion of 0.50 in each diagnal cell, e.g., A/A, even though an item is never paired with itself, it is easier simply to cross out the diagnal cells and not enter anything into them. After making the appropriate calculations, the proportions for each are recorded in a new grid. For our example the proportion grid looks like this:

	A	B	C	D	E
A		7/10 = .7	.9	.5	.5
B	3/10 = .3		.6	.2	.1
C	.1	.4		.2	.1
D	.5	.8	.8		.2
E	.5	.9	.9	.8	

The next step is to change these cell proportions to what are called "z-scores." This step can be done by checking the table at the end of this Resource Packet. Simply look up the appropriate proportion and see what z-score is associated with it. Make another grid and record this z-score in the corresponding cell. Be sure to include the Plus (+) or minus (-) sign.

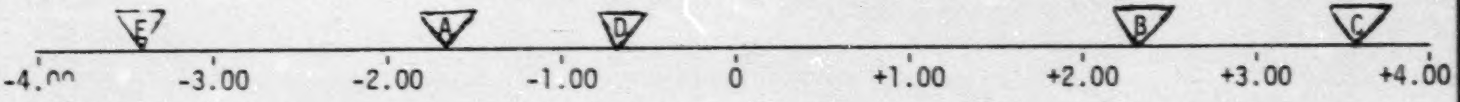
You can find the total "score" for each item by adding up the z-scores in all the cells in a given column (for example, the total of z-scores in Column A is -1.82).

	A	B	C	D	E
A	.00	.53	1.29	.00	.00
B	-.53	.00	.25	-.85	-1.29
C	-1.29	-.25	.00	-.85	-1.29
D	.00	.85	.85	.00	-.85
E	.00	1.29	1.29	.85	.00
TOTAL	-1.82	2.42	3.68	-.85	-3.43

The final step is to develop a scale to display the outcome for each of the alternatives. In our example, the column totals we are concerned with are:

Column A:	-1.82
Column B:	+2.42
Column C:	+3.68
Column D:	- .85
Column E:	-3.43

You could draw a scale by putting a zero-point in the middle, and then measuring off 3 or 4 intervals to the right, on the plus side, and the same number and spacing of intervals to the left, on the minus side, such as the following (because the largest total we have to deal with is +3.68, we will need at least 3.68 intervals on the right side of the scale):



Notice that C and B are relatively close together, but that they are far above D. Notice also that A is not far behind D, but that E is way down the scale, and quite distant from the next closest alternative. Thus while C is clearly thought to be done most effectively, there is almost as much effectiveness for B. Similarly, while D comes in as third choice, it isn't very different from A, which means that people feel that D is done only a little more effectively than A.

Although E, A, and D fall on the minus side of the scale, that does not mean that those are failures; it means that they are below the average of the group (the zero-point is the average) in the extent to which they are thought to be effectively performed.

If people in your group become confused by the minus and plus numbers, you can eliminate the minus numbers. Take the largest number with a minus sign (in this case it is -3.43), and add that number to every number on the list:

-1.82 + 3.43 = 1.61 A

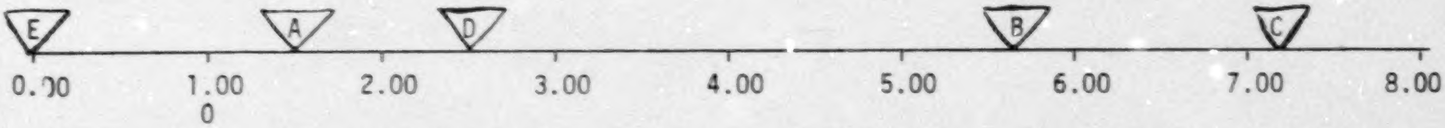
+2.42 + 3.43 = 5.85 B

+3.68 + 3.43 = 7.11 C

- .85 + 3.43 - 2.58 D

-3.43 + 3.43 = 0.00 E

Then draw a scale starting from zero, with as many intervals as needed to include the highest score obtained (7.11 in the above example):



Notice that this operation has changed the scale numbers. and eliminated the minuses, but has not changed the relative positions of the alternatives. C still comes out highest, with B not far behind; D and A are still rather close together, but far behind B, and E is still the least effective. In other words, it is the rank order of the alternatives, and the distances among them that is important, and not the specific scale scores.

In this example, the question had been, "Which task is being done most effectively?" In another situation, the question might have been, "Which task would the staff prefer to do?" In that case, if the results were like those in the example, it would be clear that the group prefers C. but that B is close enough to it in preference so that B could be chosen if C were not feasible. In still another situation, five candidates for the position of agency director were evaluated by the executive committee using the paired comparison methid. In that usage, if the results had come out like the example, it woudl mean that C was the preferred candidate, but that if he or she turned down the job, or wanted too high a salary, B would probably the just about as acceptable.

By using the method of Paired Comparisons you get not only a ranking of the items, but also an indication of the distance between them. You end up with a more accurate picture of the situation and more information than if you had used only a ranking procedure. A drawback of the paired comparison method, however, is that it is not very useful if the number of items is very large, making for an extremely large number of pairs to be compared. The total number of pairs that have to be compared is calculated by the formula:

$\frac{N(N-1)}{2}$ where N = the number of items. Thus with 5 items the formula is $\frac{5(5-1)}{2}$ or $\frac{5(4)}{2}$ = 10 pairs.

However, with 20 items the formula is:

$\frac{20(19)}{2}$ = 190 pairs. That is too many pairs to give to people in a questionnaire. It is therefore a good idea to bring a large list down to manageable size before using this method.

Z-Score Conversion Table[1]

Proportion	Z-Score	Proportion	Z-Score
0.01	-2.33	0.51	+0.03
0.02	-2.06	0.52	+0.05
0.03	-1.89	0.53	+0.08
0.04	-1.75	0.54	+0.10
0.05	-1.65	0.55	+0.13
0.06	-1.56	0.56	+0.15
0.07	-1.48	0.57	+0.18
0.08	-1.41	0.58	+0.20
0.09	-1.34	0.59	+0.23
0.10	-1.29	0.60	+0.25
0.11	-1.23	0.61	+0.28
0.12	-1.18	0.62	+0.31
0.13	-1.13	0.63	+0.33
0.14	-1.08	0.64	+0.36
0.15	-1.04	0.65	+0.39
0.16	-1.00	0.66	+0.41
0.17	-0.96	0.67	+0.44
0.18	-0.92	0.68	+0.47
0.19	-0.88	0.69	+0.50
0.20	-0.85	0.70	+0.53
0.21	-0.81	0.71	+0.56
0.22	-0.78	0.72	+0.58
0.23	-0.74	0.73	+0.61
0.24	-0.71	0.74	+0.65
0.25	-0.68	0.75	+0.68
0.26	-0.65	0.76	+0.71
0.27	-0.61	0.77	+0.74
0.28	-0.58	0.78	+0.78
0.29	-0.56	0.79	+0.81
0.30	-0.53	0.80	+0.85
0.31	-0.50	0.81	+0.88
0.32	-0.47	0.82	+0.92
0.33	-0.44	0.83	+0.96
0.34	-0.41	0.84	+1.00
0.35	-0.39	0.85	+1.04
0.36	-0.36	0.86	+1.08
0.37	-0.33	0.87	+1.13
0.38	-0.31	0.88	+1.18
0.39	-0.28	0.89	+1.23
0.40	-0.25	0.90	+1.29
0.41	-0.23	0.91	+1.34
0.42	-0.20	0.92	+1.41
0.43	-0.18	0.93	+1.48
0.44	-0.15	0.94	+1.56
0.45	-0.13	0.95	+1.65
0.46	-0.10	0.96	+1.75
0.47	-0.08	0.97	+1.89
0.48	-0.05	0.98	+2.06
0.49	0.03	0.99	+2.33
0.50	0.00	1.00	+2.80

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[1] In the event that there is an empty cell, assign it a z-score of -2.80.

RESOURCE PACKET #3
Random Assignment and Sampling

Randomness - a Definition

A selection is random if each person in a target population has an equal chance of being selected. The main advantage to random assignment is that you avoid "bias". This prevents the results of your comparison from being due to the way the people were selected rather than to the differences in service they received. For this reason random selection should be made whenever possible if you are trying to compare two or more ways of doing something.

Three Ways to Make a Random Selection

1. Flip a coin. Flipping a coin is a simple way to make a random assignment of your target population to two groups. You would do this by flipping a coin for each person who comes into the office. If the coin is "heads" he goes to Procedure A. If it is "tails" he goes to Procedure B. In this way each person has an equal chance of being selected for Procedure A or Procedure B.

2. Draw a number from a hat. If you have more than two groups (or if you don't want to be seen flipping coins in the office) you can draw numbers from a hat. This is done by assigning each person in the target population a different number. Write the numbers on separate pieces of paper; put them in a hat; mix them up; and then draw. The first person whose number is drawn would go to Group A, the second to Group B, the third to Group A, the fourth to Group B and so on. Again, each person has an equal chance of being selected for Groups A or B.

3. Table of random numbers. A third way to make a random selection is to use a table of random numbers. If you look on page 4 you will see a table of random numbers. This may look complicated but it really isn't. In fact it does the same thing as drawing numbers from a hat, without the hat.

The numbers in our table are already randomly ordered and each number (0, 1, 2,...9) appears on the page approximately the same number of times. To use the table you should randomly pick a starting number. One way to do this is to close your eyes and put your finger on the page. You start with the number you point to and move down the column from there. When you get to the bottom of the column move to the top of the next column to the right.

Example. Let's say you have 20 applicants and you want to send half to one counselor and half to another. In order to randomly assign them you would assign each applicant a number from one to twenty. For example, look at the table of random numbers now. The second group of numbers in the first column is 12, 72, 80, 24, and 13. Assuming that the target population members are numbered 1, 2, 3 and so on up to 20, the first person whose number shows up in the table is person #12. that person is assigned to Counselor A. There is no one in the target population numbered 72 or 80 or 24, so you skip those numbers and go on to person #13 who is assigned to Counselor B. Continuing down the column, the next number is 11: person #11 is assigned to Counselor A. The next relevant number, going down the column is 10 - that person goes to Counselor B. And so forth.

Now let's make it a little more complicated. Let's say you are not sure how many applicants will need counseling today, but experience tells you it will be no more than twenty. Even though you don't know who will need counseling (and therefore can't assign them a number) you can still use the table of random numbers. Although you don't know who will need counseling, you do know they will come in some kind of order. Rather than giving numbers to people give them in the order they come. The first person will be number one, the second number two, and so on. Now randomly assign the numbers to the counselors. Since there will be no more than twenty go ahead and assign all twenty numbers: if only eighteen need counseling, that's OK.

Sampling - a Definition

"Sampling" means using only part of a target population. Your objective may identify your target population as all veterans, or all minority applicants, or all applicants. Many times you cannot, or would not want to try out a project on everyone in your target population, particularly when it's very large. In these cases you would only take a sample, or a part of, your total population.

Sampling - How To Do It

In sampling you should have two concerns: size of the sample and selection of the sample. Although we can't give you hard fast rules on either of these that will fit every situation, we can state some general principles:

1) Make the sample as large as you can. Constraints such as time and money will usually restrict the size, but the smaller the sample the less you can be sure that you have selected a sample of typical applicants. A very small sample (less than ten) is usually not worth using.

2) Randomly select your sample if possible. If you are going to divide up a sample of 20 out of 200 applicants among two counselors you should:

   a) randomly pick 20 applicants from all the applicants you have, and then,

   b) randomly give ten to one counselor and ten to the other.

   You may not always be able to randomly pick your sample because you can't always predict who is going to be your population. In some cases you may have to take a sample that is convenient to pick, such as, everyone that comes in this week as a sample of everyone who comes in during the course of one year. It is much more important to randomly assign your sample into groups than to be able to hand pick those who will be in your sample. This is usually easier to do and should be done whenever possible.

TABLE OF RANDOM NUMBERS

19	86	45	95	62	09	00	12	75
37	50	60	14	36	94	35	63	60
92	16	61	26	02	74	25	81	57
12	57	35	90	29	58	87	02	23
24	31	68	26	46	35	97	61	94
12	25	39	03	65	62	85	46	15
72	92	08	12	05	15	43	27	71
80	41	21	56	46	69	01	81	77
24	55	10	60	67	67	92	48	58
13	59	36	78	43	59	65	55	38
35	65	73	51	47	18	83	32	42
63	00	27	61	26	00	67	97	81
11	32	89	50	91	98	68	20	08
68	37	06	06	78	07	40	75	90
65	81	99	65	93	77	18	15	29
37	63	39	68	52	02	39	14	33
68	15	70	87	89	46	74	29	02
50	78	13	74	24	70	06	04	64
43	86	25	72	05	74	02	42	30
98	18	20	62	85	55	57	51	90
74	35	44	47	83	76	08	63	00
36	09	33	12	73	26	94	25	07
10	00	09	45	92	45	35	08	29
96	14	21	94	77	14	91	16	72
87	74	55	63	80	08	28	00	39
39	75	99	20	24	67	79	71	18
64	18	33	35	11	52	12	99	82
01	63	72	62	19	56	64	78	90
39	22	73	44	00	04	23	03	11
33	95	72	81	30	52	43	87	32
05	43	13	87	99	11	73	35	52
00	28	65	35	20	07	60	90	04
08	13	05	08	02	39	16	45	26
50	67	47	75	31	06	57	83	79
29	59	95	36	59	30	44	97	84
29	10	03	25	18	79	12	53	12
94	49	51	59	97	49	16	54	75
65	12	82	85	70	54	96	82	33
53	20	44	80	85	91	76	36	24
25	29	44	02	18	90	72	21	79

RESOURCE PACKET #4

The Nominal Group Technique

The Nominal Group Technique (NG) is a structured procedure that facilitates decision-making in groups. Nominal means non-interacting. Studies of small groups suggest that many subtle processes within groups act to limit their effectiveness in reaching a decision. NG is designed to overcome these limitations by carefully controlling the interaction between group members during early phases of group work, then making it possible for them to reach a truly consensual decision.

NG proceeds as follows:

1. The NG group should be no smaller than 5, no larger than 10. If the group to be involved in decision-making is larger than 10, it should be broken into separate groups of the 5-10 member size, i.e., a group of 12 would be broken into two groups of 6.

2. The NG question is given to the group. In the case of LODI, two questions could be posed:

   a. What are the strengths of our agency?

   b. What are the problems of our agency that are preventing us from reaching our potential effectiveness?

   (The first question (a.) is particularly useful since it sets a positive tone to the proceedings, and provides a balanced picture of the agency, rather than the solely problem focussed view of other needs assessment procedures.)

3. Each participant is asked to write privately his or her answers to the two questions. A time limit is set (about 20 minutes should do). During this period there is to be absolutely no verbal or non-verbal communication between members.

4. One member of the group is selected to act as recorder for the group. A thick felt pen is used with large sheets of newsprint held to the wall by masking tape.

5. Each member than reads one "strength" from his or her list and it is recorded on the newsprint. If anyone has more or less the same item, a checkmark is placed next to the item. The process continues, one item at a time, going around the group, until all items have been recorded. During this reporting and recording phase, there is no discussion. When recording of "strengths" is completed, new sheets of newsprint are taped up, and the process is repeated in relation to "problems".

7. Once both lists are completed, discussion is allowed to clarify, synthesize, or add items.

8. Next, members are asked to vote secretly for the five strengths they think are most significant, and the five problems they think are most crucial. The results of these two votes should provide an impartial reflection of the agency's strong points and the problem areas considered by the group's participants to be most crucial, i.e., the high priority needs of the organization. If the group was so large that it had to be split, the different groups should meet to work out the differences in their lists. If several items have almost the same scores, the "Paired Comparison Technique"* could be used to get a more accurate reading of the group's choices.

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*See Resource Packet #2

RESOURCE PACKET #5
Locating Resources

Resources are all those things, material, informational or human, that you need or may use to accomplish a task. Too often, new ideas die a-borning because people assume that they lack the resources to bring them to life. Actually there is a tremendous range of resources available for all kinds of projects, but people are often unaware of their existence, or are unable to locate what they want when they want it. The purpose of this resource packet is to identify the kinds of resources needed by manpower agencies that are not immediately or obviously available, and suggest ways of locating them. A not too hidden agenda of this resource packet is to get your office started on the development of its own "local resources" file so that when invididual staff who know about particular resources leave your agency, their knowledge of resources does not depart with them.

The packet deals with five different kinds of resources:

1. Information
2. Money
3. Services
4. Equipment
5. Volunteers

It concludes with some basic rules about acquiring resources.

Information

The invention of the printing press insured wide availability of information. In fact, most of us are now drowning in journal articles, books, pamphlets, project reports and so forth. What people in manpower programs may need to know are the sources most appropriate to their needs. Not many of the sources of information that are described below tell you how to go about applying the knowledge they contain. However, they do provide information from which you can work in developing applications suited to your particular needs and circumstances. The last part of this section suggests some ways to convert this information into practical applications that you can use in your agency. As you read, remember that high cost items are usually available through some local library, e.g., public, school, college or university library.

1. Manpower Research and Development Projects. This is a paperbound summary of research, development, and experimental projects sponsored by the Office of Manpower Research and Development, Manpower Administration. The book is issued every year or so, and lists all of the projects that are ongoing for that year, or completed since the last issue. The most recent issue lists the projects by subject matter area (e.g., special target groups; planning and administration, etc.). Each project is summarized in a way that tells something about what was done and what the main conclusions were. The

book also tells you where you can get more information about the project: generally, from the Manpower Administration directly, from National Technical Information Service (see below), or from the project director. Past issues had a different name; before 1972 they were called Manpower Research Projects. Copies of current and past issues can be obtained from the Regional Office of the Manpower Administration in your region, and/or from: Office of Manpower Research and Development, U.S. Department of Labor, Patrick Henry Building, 601 D St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20213.

These listings are a gold mine of information, but it takes considerable imagination and digging to find the gold. Don't be put off by the project titles, or the abstract and conceptual language that is used. In order to use this work effectively, you need to have a list in your mind of all the significant tasks that your agency needs to carry out (e.g., "assess needs for manpower services in the community;" "recruit clients;" "develop job opening and orders;" etc.). As you read each project summary, ask yourself the following questions:

1. Does the report tell anything about the objectives of the task or how to find out if the task objectives are being met (or how well they are being met)?

2. Does the report tell anything about how to carry out the task? For example, if it's a report of a successful program, how did that program carry out tasks like those your agency has to perform or could perform?

3. Does the report provide any knowledge needed for carrying out a task? For example, a finding that effective equal employment opportunity programs in companies require the active participation of the companies' chief officers tells you that you need to get the chief officer involved in your job development efforts.

4. Does the report tell anything about how to organize the work? For example, does it tell which particular combination of powerful people on an advisory board seemed essential for the project's success, and does it tell about some of the dangers and pitfalls of using community leaders in that way?

5. Does the report tell about a method the researcher used for deciding on program objectives, for identifying useful techniques, and for organizing the group that's doing the work?

6. Does the report tell anything about useful criteria for knowing whether the task is being done well, and did the researcher use a particular instrument or method for measuring those criteria that could be used in your work?

7. Did the research use any questionnaires, tests, or interview questions that could be used in your agency?

8. Does the report tell you anything about where to look for significant things (e.g., does it tell you what kinds of people in a community are most likely to be in need of what kinds of manpower development help, or does it tell you what kinds of behaviors in people are likely to lead to certain outcomes in which kinds of placements)?

In short, you may be able to use the findings of the project, and/or you may be able to use the processes that the contractor used, and/or you may be able to use the specific instruments and techniques that were used.

2. Interchange. A brief (8 pages) monthly bulletin designed to provide technical assistance for local and State manpower programs. Available free from the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 601 D St., N.W., Room 6000, Washington, D.C. 20213. Carries news items and current events relating to CETA implementation and guidelines. More useful as a source of ideas and articles on particular ways that manpower programs have resolved certain common problems, and of summarized research findings that are particularly useful for local manpower agencies. These articles typically identify actions by local manpower agencies that are suggested by research findings, and should therefore be effective ways of solving operational problems. The bulletin also identifies specific publications which carry detailed technical information on particular topics (e.g., sets of job ladders for paraprofessionals in health occupations) which can save local program people from having to re-invent the wheel.

3. National Technical Information Service. A service of the U.S. Department of Commerce, NTIS publishes a weekly listing of government-sponsored research reports. You can subscribe to the weekly listing most relevant to manpower work, Behavior and Society ($40 per year) by writing to NTIS, 5285 Port Royal Rd., Springfield, VA 22151. A 42 page brochure describing all of NTIS' services is available free from the same address. Among their services is one in which you write out the main question on which you want information and send it in. NTIS then uses its computer system to print out a list of all the government reports and documents on that topic, including an abstract of each document. It costs from $50 for up to 100 abstracts, and on up, depending on how many abstracts you want, and how large a file you want them to search. For example, if you want them to also search through the Smithsonian Science Information Exchange, which mainly carries abstracts of government-funded research that is still in progress, it costs a little more. When you get the print-out listing all of the documents relevant to your question, you read the abstracts, and decide which full reports to order. You can order them in microfiche form (which requires a microfiche reader; if you don't have one, you can often borrow one from or use one at your local library) or in the much more expensive paper photocopy form, which are copy machine reproductions of the original reports, staple bound. A report of 145 pages on microfiche might cost $ 2.25; in photo-copy print it would be $ 6.00. Prices vary depending on number of pages. You would find that many of the items on the print-out have little or nothing to do with your particular need (depending on how precisely you state your question), so you might get relatively little out of the

computer search, and you would have to screen the list carefully to pick out those that are relevant. This is a problem with all computer-based searches. For example, if you asked a question about how to recruit clients to your agency, those who process your request might seize on the word "recruit" and ask the computer to spit out any title or abstract in which the word "recruit" or "recruitment" might appear. The list you receive might then include a lot of reports on recruiting for the armed forces, and on "recruitment" in hearing, a technical term about a phenomenon in which sounds are sometimes heard much louder than they should be. In other words, you'll get anything that pertains to recruiting, no matter how many different meanings that word might have. You would have to go through the list and throw out the irrelevant stuff, and even then you would have to be pretty imaginative, for example, about using information on the effectiveness of various ways to recruit people for the armed forces. For instance, you'd have to make some guesses about whether the same information would apply to recruiting clients to a manpower agency. It can be done: for example, if it is found that newspaper ads aren't as effective as rock-and-roll radio station commercials in reaching young men, you could use that knowledge if your objective is also to reach young men. Still, you would have to keep in mind that reaching unemployed young men might be different from recruiting young men in general.

Behavior and Society, the weekly listing of government reports in the social sciences which was mentioned above, contains titles and abstracts, and "where to get it" information. It suffers from the same problem as the computer search: many reports are included which do not seem to fit under the headings used. Nevertheless, it is a useful source of relevant reports although sometimes weeks go by in which nothing that is listed seems relevant. One advantage: it lists research done under any federal government auspices, not just the Manpower Administration. That includes the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, which sponsors a great deal of research relevant to manpower.

4. Selected U.S. Government Publications. Lists publications from the Government Printing Office, mostly directed at the general public, and listed under areas such as Health, Law, Manpower, etc. It's free, covers reports produced by government agencies (unlike NTIS which is concerned only with technical information and research reports mostly done by contractors rather than directly by government agencies), and comes monthly as a brochure of 16 pages, more or less. It lists the prices (generally low) for the particular publications you might want to order. You can have the listing sent to you by writing to Superintendent of Documents, ATTN: S. L. Mailing List, Washington, D.C. 20402.

5. Behavior Today. A weekly newsletter, written in a lively and crisp fashion, about the current scene in the social sciences, especially emphasizing new legislation that applies to social problems that social scientists might be interested in, as well as summaries of positions on various theoretical issues and significant research findings. It also lists grant programs (and announcements of who got what grants), together with other brief articles on current events of interest largely to professional social scientists and

especially to those who are interested in the hot issues of the day (behavior modification, research on the family, poverty, drug abuse, energy, crime and delinquency, etc.). However, the writing is not technical: it seems as if it is designed for professionals who want to know what is going on outside their own specialties, and who therefore are no more familiar than laymen with other technical jargon. Also lists upcoming meetings and conferences, and reports available from private and public foundations, organizations, universities, and individuals. The Newsletter varies in length, from 4 to 10 pages, cost $25 per year, and is available from Behavior Today, 1156 15th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 10005.

6. Worklife. Published monthly by the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor (subscription: $15.30 year, from Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402; possibly free if you work in a Department of Labor funded program - check with the Regional Office of the U.S. Department of Labor). Well-written non-technical articles of 3 to 4 pages each, usually a half-dozen such in each issue. Most are about innovative programs in manpower development (you usually have to write for more information for the "how to do it" level). Three regular features are most interesting and useful: 1) Words and Figures (which summarizes data); 2) R & D Reports (which lists titles and abstracts of selected reports in the manpower field, most of which are available from NTIS); and 3) News and Notes, which gives current events information about the Manpower field.

7. Training. There at least are four good magazines in the general area of training techniques and methods (for both staff training, and for training of enrollees) which carry information about planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating programs, and also on various training machinery and gimmikry. The first two listed below are primarily directed at educators, the latter two at industrial trainers. They vary a great deal among themselves in how technical and theoretical they are, so you might want to check out a couple of issues of each at a library before you decide to subscribe; libraries of the local school system are likely to have the first two; colleges of business administration are likely to have the others. Most of these carry a lot of news about new techniques, books, reports, and other products related to training, counseling, career education, training of managers and supervisors, etc., as well as lots of advertisements, diagrams, photos, and charts.

Educational Technology (monthly, $21 per year, Educational Technology Publications, Inc., 140 Sylvan Ave., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632).

Audiovisual Instruction (10 times a year, $12 per year to non-members of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036).

Training and Development Journal (monthly, $18 per year, American Society for Training and Development, P.O. Box 5307, Madison, WI 53705).

Training: The Magazine of Manpower and Management Development (monthly $12 per year, Gellert Publishing Corp., 1 Park Ave., New York, NY 10016).

8. Manpower and Vocational Education Weekly. A newsletter of varying numbers of pages about current events in federal policy, procedures, programs, appropriations, legislation, etc. Not a source of program ideas, but a way of keeping up with events, and a source of names of people and agencies to whom you can write for information that might stimulate program ideas. Issued weekly by Capitol Publications, Inc., Suite G-12, 2430 Pennsylvania Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037, $85 per year.

9. Evaluation: A Forum for Human Service Decision-Makers. An experimental publication supported by federal funds, primarily for people in mental health agencies and services, it is an attractive magazine that seems to come out quarterly. The writing is non-technical and designed to arouse the interest of the reader. It carries articles of varying length by public figures, social scientists, theorists, and practitioners, and excerpts and summaries of significant work, all in the interest of improving the quality of human services to people. Used to be free, and still is to anyone who is affiliated with a publicly-supported mental health service or agency. Otherwise, now $2.50 a copy. Write: Evaluation, 501 S. Park Ave., Minneapolis, MN, 55415.

10. The Social and Rehabilitation Record. Very much like Manpower in the type of thing it does, except that it is published by Social and Rehabilitation Service, Department of Health, Education and Welfare (10 issues per year, $6.40, from Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, P.O. Box 1533, Washington, D.C. 20402) and thus draws its articles from projects and activities sponsored by that agency, rather than by the Manpower Administration. Carries articles on vocational rehabilitation of the physically, mentally, and socially handicapped, job development, counseling, etc. Also lists research and demonstration reports from SRS-funded projects, and relevant publications and films. Like Manpower, it's a mixture of inspiration, information, and ideas that you would need to do further work on in order to apply them to your situation. Also a good source of names of people and agencies to whom you could write for more information and ideas.

11. Social Sciences: A Directory of Information Resources in the U.S. This directory is produced by the National Referral Center, a component of the Library of Congress that acts as the "information desk" of the scientific and technical community. It provides names, addresses, telephone numbers and brief descriptions of information resources throughout the country. The National Referral Center's services are available without charge. Requests may be made by calling area code 202/426-5670, or by writing to the Library of Congress, Science and Technology Division, Referral Center, Washington, D.C., 20540. The Directory itself costs $6.90, and is sold by the Superintendant of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, Stock No. 3000-00065.

12. Scholarly Journals: Toughies but goodies. Most of the sources above have a kind of medium level of applicability: the information is not in the form of direct application, telling you what to do and how to do it; neither is it at the level of abstract principles about human behavior. Most

of it has to do with general strategies for doing something about unemployment and underemployment through programs for applicants, employers, and public organizations.

There is another level of knowledge available: research-based principles about human and organizational behavior. A large gap exists between such principles and what manpower workers can do to use that knowledge. It is therefore most difficult to apply the knowledge contained in such research publications. On the other hand, the knowledge they contain has two important advantages: 1) because the knowledge has been systematically tested in research, you can rely on it more; 2) because it is more abstract, there is a greater range of ways in which it can be applied by people with the imagination to invent actions and program activities that are consistent with the knowledge. But on the negative side, these resources are written by researchers for other researchers, so you have to know the language, jargon, conventions, and methods of research to understand and make use of them. It probably takes a fair amount of formal background in psychology, social psychology, and sociology to use these resources. Below is a list of the journals which cover this kind of research most usefully:

Journal

Administrative Science Quarterly
American Behavioral Scientist
American Psychologist
Contemporary Psychology
Improving Human Performance
Journal of Applied Psychology
Journal of Applied Social Psychology
Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology
Journal of Counseling Psychology
Journal of Employment Counseling
Journal of Human Performance
Journal of Personality
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology
Journal of Social Issues
Professional Psychology
Review of Educational Research
Small Group Behavior

Finally, there are several publications which do some of the work for you. These *journals of abstracts* are made up entirely of short paragraphs which summarize the gist of articles in the professional journals, classified according to topic. Each abstract also usually tells you where to find the original article. Each of these journals uses its own "pool" of professional journals that it screens and abstracts. For example, *Psychological Abstracts* summarizes all the articles on psychological topics in over 800 different journals, technical reports, etc., and also summarizes new books. Here are five good abstract journals:

Personnel Management Abstracts
Poverty and Human Resources Abstracts
Dissertation Abstracts
Psychological Abstracts
Abstracts for Social Workers

Some of these abstract services are also on computer, so that you can write in, tell them what topics you want information on, and get a print-out with the abstracts of articles on that topic, the names of the articles and where and when they were published. Like the one operated by NTIS, described earlier, these usually cost money, and you get a lot of irrelevant and useless materials, so we won't even bother to list them -- except to mention that the National Institute of Mental Health's (Clearinghouse of Mental Health Information, NIMH, Rockville, Maryland) is FREE. Too bad it's not on manpower topics.

It's unlikely that most manpower agencies would find any of the above useful enough to subscribe to regularly, but they may be worth surveying from time to time in some nearby library.

A SYSTEM FOR USING KNOWLEDGE AND IDEA RESOURCES:

But who has time to read all these materials? Of course, no one has, and no one reads them all. You survey them:

1. Read the table of contents for the titles of the articles. If a title is about the kinds of people that your work requires you to deal with (enrollees, youths, employers, etc.), and/or about some behaviors you are concerned about (e.g., achievement motivation, interests, attitudes, etc.), and/or about some relevant situation (e.g., interviews, supervisor-employee relations), and/or some techniques you might use (e.g., group influence, simulations etc.), then you might want to check further.

2. Turn to the article and read the abstract (a short paragraph under the title in most research journals) or the first paragraph or two, if there is no abstract.

3. If the abstract or introductory paragraph confirms that the article is relevant, turn to the summary or conclusions paragraph at the end. That may tell you all you need to know about the topic.

4. But if the summary isn't enough (or if you question the conclusions, or want to find out more about them), then read the whole article. In using a procedure like this, you can survey a lot of resources; find what's relevant, and still not have to do a great deal of reading.

A SYSTEM FOR COLLECTING AND RETAINING INFORMATION

It's often the case that a staff member has to track down a resource for a particular client or job-related problem. Assuming the resource is located, there should be a central file in which information about that resource is kept, so that other staff can secure it when they need it in their work. To create such a central file, you need (a) a uniform way of recording information about the resource, (b) an easily accessed location for the file, and (c) someone assigned to keep the file up-to-date, and continually expanding.

A uniform record of resource contacts should at least include the following information:

1. Name of the person completing the form.
2. Date the form was written.
3. Category of resource, e.g., Information, Equipment, etc.
4. Specific nature of the resource.
5. Specific procedures involved in securing the resource, e.g., who to call, where to go to get it, etc.
6. Description of experience in using the resource with particular attention to future prospects from that source, pitfalls to be avoided in using the resource, how well the resource filled the bill, etc.
7. Anything learned about securing resources, both in relation to the particular resource, and to resource acquisitions in general.

In addition, some procedure should be developed for categorizing records, so that, for example, someone looking for used office equipment does not have to read through the entire file to find what is needed. You'll need to make up a list of categories that are meaningful to your agency. These categories are called "descriptors" by librarians. A good source of descriptors can be found in "Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors, New York: CCM Information Corporation, 1972." Since many individual records would be likely to contain reference to resources that would fall under more than one category, a cross-referencing system should be developed. If you need help to do this, you should consult your local librarian - a person who knows all about systems for filing information. And once you've done that, you will have established a working link with one of your best information sources: the library.

Librarians can seem very busy and unapproachable. You may be embarrassed by not knowing your way around. Memories of your school library experiences may haunt you, and make you hesitate to ask for help. But librarians are trained to teach people to use the many resources of a library. In addition, they very much want to be helpful. They will explain, when asked, how to use the card catalog, encyclopedias, almanacs, government documents, old newspaper files, projectors, microfilm readers, and so forth.

Many communities have several types of libraries. In addition to the city, county, school, college and university libraries, some businesses or industries maintain specialized libraries that could be useful to you. If you're getting ready to look for information in libraries, it would be helpful to know about all of the libraries in your community. If one library cannot help you, the people there may know of a library that can.

Finally, in addition to developing a central resource file, you should consider developing a specialized library of your own that would house journals, books, agency reports, government documents that relate to your program, and so forth. Again, if you decide to establish your own library, ask a librarian to help you set it up. You may be surprised at his or her willingness to be helpful.

There is one problem to overcome in creating such a file: getting staff to complete and turn in the resource file record forms. But if staff agree to develop such a file, and someone is made responsible for it, it should grow. Once people have begun to use it and see how valuable it can be, chances are they will be highly motivated to continually add to it.

In concluding this section on Information, attention must be drawn to one of the best free sources of information available to you: the yellow pages of your telephone directory. For example, under the heading "Associations" can be found reference to the following headings: Athletic Organizations; Business & Trade Organizations; Church Organizations; Fraternal Organizations; Fraternities and Sororities; Labor Organizations; Political Organizations; Professional Organizations; Social Service and Welfare Organizations; Veterans and Military Organizations; and Youth Organizations and Centers, as well as the name, address and telephone number of every group in town that considers itself an "association", providing it has a phone. Clearly, the headings listed above all represent potential sources of resources, some of which will be discussed at various points throughout the remainder of this packet.

MONEY

Money has been called the "root of all evil" but without it, program development and innovation is awkward, to say the least. Agency budgets may have an iron-clad quality about them, but there are ways of acquiring dollars to do things that were not anticipated or included when the administrator made up the budget.

As a first step, it's possible to involve staff in budget development itself, so that staff as a whole has a say in the budget priorities for the coming year. One manpower program we've heard of used the technique of "group contracting" learned from MSS' training package on "Techniques of Group Leadership" to negotiate a consensus on budget priorities. The administrator thought that this led to improved staff committment to the agency's goals, and a keener awareness by staff of the necessary budgetary processes that go into running an agency.

If a small amount of money is needed for a specific project or individual, you could turn to a charitable group in the community. Such groups can be located, as indicated earlier, through the yellow pages of your telephone book, and could include church groups, fraternal organizations, veterans groups, or any other association that has charity or community service as one of its major goals.

Larger amounts of money for the support of some project or innovation may be available from a granting agency or foundation. Such sources are often highly specialized in their interest and might be directly relevant to your needs. Here are some sources to look at: they're probably available at the library.

1. The Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance.

Explains the nature and purpose of programs. Specifies major eligibility requirements. Tells where to apply and lists printed materials available. Indexed by subject, agency and master indexed by program category. Description includes program title, nature and purpose of program, eligibility, contract, what printed information is available, authorizing legislation, and administering agency. Available from the Superintendant of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for $7.35: it's revised periodically.

2. Annual Register of Grant Support.

Provides indices by subject, organization name and geographic area of private foundation and Federal sources. Lists information for each entry regarding funding preferences, application deadlines, usual size of grants, form in which the application should be made and frequently the name of the contact person at the organization. An excellent source for foundations because of the triple index and the extent of other information provided. Use of this register allows a narrowing of possible funding agencies for any specific purpose.

3. The Grantsmanship Center News.

Published eight times a year in a newspaper format; available from Grantsmanship Center, a non-profit institution (1015 West Olympic Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90015) for $10 per year (cheaper if you order two or three-year subscriptions). Contains articles on how to write grant proposals, how to negotiate with government and foundation grantors, how to plan and administer grant projects, and news of who is funding what kinds of projects. Also includes announcements of workshops, and summaries of conference proceedings on the design and management of projects supported by grants. A source of ideas about how to plan and organize projects and programs, as well as news about program ideas that have been carried out under grants.

SERVICES

At times, what you need is someone with particular knowledge and skill that doesn't exist within your own staff group. You might want legal services, medical services, business services, and so forth. Again, your yellow pages can be an invaluable start-point. In addition, organizations like the local Chamber of Commerce or National Alliance of Businessmen could prove most helpful. Expertise is often available from universities and colleges, and such institutions expect their faculty and staff to make their expertise available to the local community.

A first step in the development of your central resource file might be to Brainstorm a list of the kinds of services you are likely to need, and then to assign one or more people to make up the necessary record forms on potential resources relevant to those needs. You should remember that there are a great many organizations in your community that are directly concerned with problems of employment ranging from high schools to unions, the department of public welfare to mental health clinics. In many of these organizations there are people with special competence and experience that might prove useful to you: you should know them, and it doesn't hurt to have this acquaintance on a first-name basis. Most manpower agency workers develop such contacts over time in the course of their work, but usually in reference to limited, specific needs. What is being suggested here is to develop systematically a network of contacts that could be potentially productive, even though there is no specific need at the moment.

A good source of information about human service organizations can be found in the directories developed by organizations such as the Welfare Planning Council, or United Way; in addition, some counties develop such directories. Directories usually contain brief descriptions of each organization's program in addition to basic identifying information such as correct name, address, telephone, and Director's name. When "recruiting" services, remember to use the 5 Basic Rules discussed at the end of this packet.

EQUIPMENT

Equipment freebies, bargains or loans are abundant, providing you know where to look.

As Rule #1 on Acquiring Resources (page 26) suggests, always begin by assuming you can get equipment free. Sometimes you'll be looking for an outright contribution of new equipment, more often you may settle for good, used equipment, with tax benefits to the donor.

Governmental auctions of all kinds can be a gold mine of cheapies but goodies: used vehicles, furniture, office equipment, lamps, etc. Usually, such auctions are announced in the want ads of your local newspaper, and are sponsored under city, county, state or federal government auspices: insurance companies and moving companies have also been known to dispose of property by the auction route. Newspaper ads can also provide a tip on auctions resulting from bankruptcy proceedings: Look under "Legal Notices".

State and federal government surplus warehouses are open to a select population: your agency has to apply to the governmental unit in question for permission to purchase such equipment. Often large universities also dispose of used equipment by quiet sale to the public. It may take a little telephoning to locate these sources, but once you've tapped into them, you'll find it's been well worth the effort, especially with regard to future purchases.

Another source of equipment could be local fraternal organizations, since most of them include community service as one of their goals. Such organizations are often reluctant to provide cold cash, but through their membership, are often in touch with sales, wholesale prices, or even good used personal property. In addition, such organizations could be talked into purchasing and donating specific kinds of equipment if a little placque displaying their name as donor is placed on the equipment.

VOLUNTEERS

Much of what has already been said pertains to volunteers. The librarian who assists you to create your own agency library, or the lawyer who speaks to trainees about legal aspects of work or the local citizen who sits on your advisory board; all are volunteers in the sense that they provide meaningful services without pay. The tradition of volunteering to help others is a strong one in this country, and can be drawn on, providing you can define clearly the tasks to be done, and know where to look for such volunteers.

Finding volunteers is not that difficult, once you begin to look for something specific. As indicated above, social service and welfare organizations, professional associations, fraternal groups, labor unions, etc. are all good sources of volunteers. In addition, the local United Fund or Welfare Planning Council usually has a Volunteer Bureau where people who are interested in volunteering time and skills register this interest, with agencies drawing from this pool. The key to good volunteers is having something specific and do-able for them to do, and making it possible for them to do their thing in their own way.

SOME BASIC RULES ABOUT ACQUIRING RESOURCES

Rule #1 - Always assume that you can get resources free. If you need something, begin by trying to get it donated to your office. Items donated

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to a non-profit organization (which includes most government funded agencies) are tax deductible for the donor. For example, if you need a typewriter, a local business can donate one of its machines that it's replacing. The business can take an income tax deduction for the value of the typewriter as a charitable contribution, and you might be able to invest the two or three hundred dollars that a new one would have cost in helping another client.

Expenses involved in the donation of services to your agency may also be deductible. If you can convince a local businessman or union leader to provide some part of the training you provide for your client, they may deduct their travel and any other expenses they incur in the delivery of these services. The market value of the services rendered are not deductible, but the expenses involved in donating these services are.

Obviously, there is a double advantage to be gained from a donation, for not only have you acquired a resource that you needed: you've also developed a relationship with the donor - be it an individual or an organization - that could be nourished against the need for future assistance and support.

Rule #2 - Sell to the resource's needs, not to yours. Don't try to convince a lawyer to donate time for a presentation to your trainees by telling him or her only how useful this will be to your program. Tell the lawyer how you intend to provide for his or her needs. Although lawyers feel the need to help people, it may not be their strongest needs. Besides, they can provide for their need in that department with a paying client. Find out as much as you can about the person, then sell the idea that you can help meet their needs while they are helping you. For example, if you meet someone who is running for election, they might agree to make a presentation to your trainees on the legal rights of workers, if you get the local newspaper to cover the event, with a picture of a "local citizen volunteering time to help others in their quest for jobs."

Rule #3 - Assume that you've made the sale, and let the buyer make the lesser decision. If you give your prospective resource a chance to say "no", they may do so. To avoid this problem, assume that the resource has already agreed to do what you asked, and proceed to a lesser decision, such as the way in which the resource is to be delivered, or the time and the place at which the resource can be secured. For example, if you're calling a university professor in search of information, you'd probably do better to ask when it would be convenient to have an appointment, than to ask whether or not he or she would be willing to talk with you.

Rule #4 - Don't hussle what you don't really need. Locating and obtaining resources often takes considerable staff time and energy. In some cases, you may decide that it simply is not worth the effort involved to secure a resource that you don't need very much. Not only might you then be making an unwise investment of staff if you tried to secure the resource, but you might inadvertently convince the prospective donor that you're wasting the agency's time on trifling matters. That could hurt your public relations image when you go looking for something important.

Rule #5 - If you can't get it (to keep) for free, borrow it. Some potential donors simply cannot give you certain items, such as expensive training equipment like a videotape recorder, but they can lend it to you. If your needs are short range, this could be an entirely satisfactory arrangement.

IN CONCLUSION

This resource packet will have served its purpose well if it provides new ideas about where to look, and gives you added incentive to locate and recruit a wide range of resources. Good hunting.